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Racial Socialization, Stress, Climate And Coping: An Examination Of Educator Perceptions Of Classroom Management And Motivation Of Students And Colleagues

Abstract

ABSTRACT

RACIAL SOCIALIZATION, STRESS, CLIMATE AND COPING:

AN EXAMINATION OF EDUCATOR PERCEPTIONS OF CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT AND MOTIVATION OF STUDENTS AND COLLEAGUES

Brian Tinsley

Howard C. Stevenson

Understanding and addressing school faculty stress experienced in primary and secondary school contexts is important in efforts to attract and retain capable teaching staff. With increasing student and staff diversity, issues of race are more present. Experiencing issues of race can cause stress for many teachers and administrators. The distress that results from racial interactions is referred to as “racial stress”.

Few studies have explored the relationship between racial socialization, race-related stress, and coping among K-12 educators. This study sought to understand how varied forms of racial socialization, as well as perception of school stress, and race-related stressful encounters effect faculty perceptions of their schools and how well they are able to manage their classrooms, motivate students, and motivate their colleagues.

The current study hypothesized that educator ethnic group membership, racial socialization, and racial stress would significantly influence perceived abilities to manage classrooms, motivate students, and motivate colleagues. Ethnic minority faculty reported statistically more experiences of racial socialization, higher perceptions of racially challenging school climates, as well as increased perceptions of discrimination against students of color by their colleagues.

Racial encounter educational preparation predicted educator perceptions of racial competence, racial coping, racial encounter problem solving, as well as an ability to motivate students and colleagues. Assertiveness concerning racial issues, racial competence, and racial encounter problem solving abilities predicted an increase in classroom management, as well as ability to motivate students and colleagues.

Hierarchical linear regression analyses demonstrated that higher perceptions of racial competence predicted increased perceptions of ability to management classroom and motivate students. Higher perceptions of racial threat and trauma predicted decreased perceptions of classroom management ability. Increased experiences of racial socialization and higher perceptions of racial competence predicted higher perceptions of ability to motivate students. Perceptions that school climates were encouraging of racial conversations, educator racial competence, and educator racial encounter problem solving ability predicted increased perceived ability to motivate teachers.

This study demonstrates how faculty experience and manage the dilemmas of teaching predominantly students of color in varied school climates where racial dynamics and encounters consistently occur. These findings have implications for education programs preparing faculty to cope with race-related stressful

encounters in the classroom as well as aid in understanding the need to negotiate conversations around race-related concerns. Specifically, these findings reveal the importance of racial socialization – during childhood and educational preparation – in the role of readying educators to competently perceive, engage, and resolve racial issues.

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MANAGEMENT AND MOTIVATION OF STUDENTS AND COLLEAGUES

Brian Tinsley

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MANAGEMENT AND MOTIVATION OF STUDENTS AND COLLEAGUES
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2018

Brian Tinsley

DEDICATIONS

This dissertation is dedicated to my mother.

I did it. We did it.

To all those who have paved the way for such an accomplishment to be made;
This dissertation is for you.

To the kid who has been constantly teased for who they are or how they look;
To the kid who has ever had to wear a headgear to school every day;
To the kid who has ever felt like an alien in this massive world;
This dissertation is for you.

To anyone who has ever been made to work with a group of people who didn't realize
how off-putting they were;
To anyone who has ever been asked questions by someone who thought they were quick-
witted enough to be sneaky (but were just being intrusive and obnoxious);
This dissertation is for you.

To anyone who has ever had employers or coworkers make blatantly false statements;
To anyone who has ever found themselves surrounded by people who talk excessively
about you, though you did not find them worthy of speaking about;
This dissertation is for you.

To all of my students that have encouraged me to continue;
This dissertation is for you.

To anyone who has ever switched advisors;
This dissertation is for you.

To anyone who has ever been carded by a campus staff member where you're enrolled,
while all the other students aren't stopped;
To anyone who has ever had the campus police called on you and been handcuffed on
your own campus for expressing a grievance;
To anyone who has ever been stopped and asked to empty the contents of their bag at the
grocery store just off campus because they took too long shopping;
This dissertation is for you.

To anyone who has ever had the police called on them for standing in front of their
apartment building;

To anyone who has ever been harassed by campus police for studying in a campus library;
To anyone who has ever had their bag taken and searched by campus police;
To anyone who has ever had a spotlight shined in their face, by campus police, with no words to accompany, while waiting for a campus shuttle;
To anyone who has attempted to file a report, only to have the officer refuse to file their complaint;
This dissertation is for you.

To anyone who has ever returned *home* only to be mistreated;
To anyone who has ever been constantly followed around a store;
To anyone who has ever been racially profiled;
To anyone who's ever been handcuffed and kicked by police while attempting to call a family member to tell them you won't be able to make it to them because you're being wrongfully detained;
This dissertation is for you.

To anyone who has ever experienced what it feels like to have intense anxiety;
To anyone who has ever experienced chronic stress;
To anyone who has ever been depressed;
This dissertation is for you.

To those who have never allowed themselves to genuinely grieve for what they have gone through in life;
This dissertation is for you.

I know you.
I am you.
One day at a time.

To this dissertation:

I made a mountain out of you – and while you are certainly no molehill, I envisioned you to be Everest.

You are imperfect – not at all what I intended you to be – and that... is okay.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The United States of America has long been heralded as the land of opportunity. It is a place in which dreams come true, so long as you pull yourself up by the bootstraps, keep your head down, and work hard (Rooks, 2012). With this simple combination of efforts, it is believed that success awaits. It is because of these sentiments, that many have flocked to the land of the free; home of the brave. It is because of these sentiments that so many across the globe have risked their lives, choosing to leave everything they knew, in order to create new homes. It is because of these sentiments that so many from every continent have traversed to the borders of America, creating what has come to be the most diverse nation in the world.

As a result of this continued mass migration to the U.S., the notion of diversity, along with freedom and opportunity, have become the hallmarks of America. However, while these concepts are universally known, they are not universally practiced. Outside of the borders of the U. S., these concepts are difficult to achieve for various reasons, thus leading to emigration in several nations. However, within the borders of the United States, these concepts are also not universally upheld. Unsurprising to many, an appreciation of diversity and all that it has to offer is not fostered by the whole of the population of these United States. As a result, there is a lack of attention given toward understanding racial diversity and all that it begets.

There are no greater centers of diversity than many of the schools across America. Many of the classrooms, particularly in metropolitan areas, showcase the greatest

concentrations of diversity. In charge of these classrooms, there are a great many teachers, with their own set of diverse characteristics, who maintain a range of experiences and capabilities. Considered together, there are a great many combination of characteristics that can exist within any given classroom, particularly one in an ethnically and culturally diverse school setting. Diversity of any kind brings with it differing perspectives and a new set of issues. While diversity of thought and action is often a benefit in many contexts (e.g., to yield the best concepts and optimal results), it can provide dissonance if the dynamics at play are unable to be properly harnessed (Meer & Tolsma, 2014). A classroom can showcase a number of scenarios depending on those involved – both teachers and students – and the experiences they bring into the classroom. Thus, the manner by which individuals have been socialized to understand what it means to be a student, teacher, learner, educator, male, female, success or failure can have a bearing on what will take place within the four walls of a classroom.

In addition, what it means to an individual to be Black, White, Latino, Asian, Native American, etc. has a bearing on how students and teachers perceive themselves and each other. How individuals perceive themselves racially, and form racial identities, is influenced by how they have been socialized. This concept, known as *racial socialization* is largely understood to be performed by parents and extended family via the communication of verbal messages, parental/family actions and implicit and explicit messaging (Hughes, Johnson, Smith, Rodriguez, Stevenson, Spicer, Woods, & Kurtz-Costes, 2007, Stevenson, 2006). However, there is no universal consensus regarding what specific messages constitute racial and ethnic socialization (Coard & Sellers, 2005).

Since socialization is performed via modeling of behavior and experiences and opportunities (Brown & Krishankumar, 2007), given the amount of time spent with children, many teachers may play a role in this process as well, however unintentionally (Graves, 2014).

While a significant amount of research on racial socialization focuses on adolescents, particularly Black adolescents, there is significantly less research that focuses on the racial socialization experiences of adults (Brown & Tylka, 2011; Fischer & Shaw, 1999). Moreover, there is very little research that looks at the racial socialization experiences of White individuals, youth or adults (Hagerman, 2014; Hagerman, 2017; Michael, 2011). However, given that White individuals still make up a disproportionate amount of the student and teacher populations in the United States, it remains beneficial to understand how they have been socialized to understand themselves and others. Increasing the understanding of racial socialization of the largest population in the U.S. is a logical step to take in an effort to generate increased empathy and genuine understanding of others, skills that are especially important within the context of our nation's school systems.

A lack of understanding of others can generate biases – implicit or explicit, that can subsequently impact the learning environment of schools (Bigler & Liben, 2006). Implicit attitudes are an automatic process, which involves unconscious stereotyping and prejudice towards a group, while explicit attitudes are a controlled process which concerns stereotyping and prejudice toward a group (Kumar, Karabenick, & Burgoon,

2015). These biases can play a role during individual interactions or altering the way in which a classroom may be managed and, perhaps the administration of school policies.

Statement of Problem

Maintaining the teaching workforce has been a point of concern for several decades. Teachers are leaving the profession at surprisingly high rates. Some studies have reported as many as half of new teachers leaving the field within the first five years (Most, 1996; Darling-Hammond, 2001; Shen et al., 2015; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2017). In addition, increasing the diversity of the pool of teachers and providing those teachers with ample training has been a persistent focal point in the U.S. across recent decades. A number of studies support the notion that it is beneficial to both students and teachers alike to have a teaching pool that is reflective of the student population (Bates & Glick, 2013). For instance, previous research has examined the relationship between teachers' perceptions of student behavior and teacher/student race (Anderson-Clark, Green, & Henley, 2008) and observed that Black students were perceived to be more disrespectful and troublesome (Skiba et al., 2002).

According to the U.S. Department of Education's 2016 report on Teacher Shortage Areas, there is a shortage of teachers across the country, the greatest of which exists in urban and rural areas among high-need schools. In these schools, in particular, mathematics, reading, science, special education and language teachers are in high demand. The demand for teachers to be placed in high-need school contexts – which are disproportionately low-income and high in ethnic minority students – has created a pipeline of individuals from suburbia to low-resource schools. These low-resource

schools primarily exist in urban centers or rural areas across America. This pipeline has come to include the creation and sustaining of teaching credentials in a truncated period of time – significantly shorter than traditional teaching programs. Missing from these programs are adequate trainings that prepare teachers for the various social dynamics that can arise as a function of race, thereby contributing to their experience of stress in and outside of the classroom. Many experienced K-12 teachers have reported feeling a sense of isolation on a daily basis (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1992). This may be a result of their social context being composed of mostly students, as opposed to peers.

Considering the lack of attention given to racial issues in both traditional and non-traditional teacher education programs, many teachers may not have adequate experience or training when they step into the classroom (Tripp, Love, Thomas & Russell, 2017; Ukpokodu, 2007). Furthermore, a lack of attention given to socialization around racial issues while growing up as adolescents themselves contributes to a lack of experience that benefits the navigation of racial encounters (Stevenson, 2011). Thus, teachers may feel unprepared to adequately address, discuss, and remedy situations dealing with cultural/racial difference that arise among students and/or faculty.

A plethora of variables impact teachers and their abilities to optimally function, which may negatively influence classroom management, subsequently impacting student learning. A lack of ample training regarding these dynamics may therefore, impact teacher ability to adequately address student challenges.

The socialization experiences that individuals receive concerning race and racial dynamics during developmental periods has an impact on how they go about navigating

social spaces during the subsequent years of their lives. Consequently, the socializing experiences of teachers prior to entering their classrooms has an impact on how they management their classrooms. Simultaneously, the manner in which teachers manage their classrooms serves as a form of socialization for students. Therefore, depending upon the dynamics and ethnic composition of the classroom, students may experience racial socialization.

Research Questions

This research seeks to explore the concepts of racial socialization of teachers – as well as individual experiences of race-related stress and how they impact classroom management. Many of the stressful experiences that teachers endure arise as a function of the volume of dynamics taking place on a daily basis and an inability to adequately address each incident and stakeholder (i.e. students, parents, principal, administration).

Broadly, this research is designed to address the following questions:

1. Are there racial and ethnic differences in racial socialization experiences and coping abilities of educators?
2. How well are teachers of various racial/ethnic backgrounds able to successfully manage classroom stressors in racially diverse schools?

Rationale and Significance of Study

As the racial diversity of America continues to increase, the composition of the schools increases as well. However, there are a disproportionate number of teachers and administrators that are responsible for the education of students. Accordingly, it is important to examine what dynamics arise as a result of these shifting demographics.

Racial Diversity of Students

In 2002, according to the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES), White students represented 59% of public school attendees, Black students represented 17%, Hispanic students represented 18%, Asian/Pacific Islander represented 4%, and American Indian/Alaska Native students represented 1%. The NCES predicts that in 2024 the proportion of White and Black public school students will have further decreased in relation to other populations in the United States. The White student population is expected to fall to 46% of public school students, a drop from 51% in 2012. Black students are projected to drop to 15% in 2024 (previously 16% in 2012). Conversely, the populations of both Hispanic and Asian/Pacific Islander students are expected to increase significantly by 2024. Hispanic public school students are projected to represent 29% of total public school enrollment (an increase from 24% in 2012). Asian Islander students are expected to represent 6% of the total public school population in 2024 (previously 5% in 2012). The American Indian/Alaska Native population is expected to remain steady at 1% of public school students (Kena et al., 2016).

In 2002, students who identified as being of two or more races were not captured in the study. However, in 2012, 3% of public school students identified as being multiracial. The number of students identified as multiracial increased to 4% in 2016. The absence of this information in 2002 relays a lack of consideration for those students who identify as being of mixed-race heritage. This failure of the NCES to capture such information after the turn of the century suggests systemic issues within of our educational institutions concerning a need to be more proactive in considering measures

of diversity and the subsequent factors that result. Therefore, taking into consideration the significant increase of racial diversity among student populations, it is important to provide these students with educators that can adequately engage and respond to their educational and social needs.

Racial Diversity of Teachers

NCES observed that the elementary and secondary school teacher workforce is not as racially diverse as the general population of the U.S. or the public school student population. In the 2011-2012 school year, 82% of the public school teachers were White, while – as noted above – 51% of students were White. In contrast, 16% of students were Black, while only 7% of public teachers were Black. In addition, 24% of students were Hispanic, while only 8% of teachers were Hispanic. NCES notes that teacher populations were comparable for elementary and secondary school teachers.

Additionally, NCES (2016) observed that K-12 educators were less likely to be Black or Hispanic in comparison to early learning educators. This was particularly true for those teaching in Head Start or teaching without a bachelor's degree). From the 1987-1988 academic year to the 2012-2013 academic year, NCES noted that while Hispanic and Asian teachers have increased slightly, while Black and Alaska Native teacher populations have decreased, 1% and 0.5%, respectively. The population of White teachers has decreased from 87% to 82%. According to a 2007-2008 study, NCES observed that among the teachers working in high-poverty elementary and secondary schools, 63% were White, 16% were Black, and 17% were Hispanic.

Hence, when compared to the student population, it is evident that the teacher population has not increased in a similar manner. Accordingly, there is a need to understand and address any social disconnects that may arise from this disproportionate populations, particularly in low-resource, high-demand regions that are more likely to have racially diverse students.

Racial Diversity of Principals

Expectedly, NCES observed a lack of diversity among principals across the country. In 2011-2012, approximately 80% of principals were White, 10% were Black, and 7% were Hispanic. For Black principals (similar to the students), the proportion of the population was a decrease from previous years. While the percentage of new White principals has decreased to 77% of all new public school principals during the 2011-2012 school year, there is still a significant absence of ethnic minority principals.

In addition, the roles and responsibilities of those outside of the visibility of students and parents is also important for the successful development of students. Those who determine curricula and compose textbooks also have a direct influence on what children see and learn throughout their years as students (Heyneman, Farrell & Sepulveda-Stuardo. 1981; Moore et al, 2015). The manner in which a textbook is composed, inclusive of its content and graphics can impact what students read and see with each passing year of their educational experiences. Those individuals who serve as policy makers also have a significant bearing on student outcomes. Thus, the diversity of policy makers, their awareness of important issues, and their sensitivity to the vulnerabilities of different populations of students, impacts a multitude of communities.

It is important to understand who the individuals are impacting the well-being of each generation of the students matriculating through our school systems.

Considering the projections of the aforementioned data concerning the continued shifts in demographics, it is important to adequately acknowledge and address the evolving racial landscape that comprise schools across the nation. In order to promote understanding as well as maximize the health, well-being, and success of both students and teachers, it is important to take into consideration the social dynamics that take place in the classroom as a function of these changes in populations.

Teacher Training Pipeline

In 2016, the U.S. Department of Education released a report titled “The State of Racial Diversity in the Educator Workforce” in conjunction with the National Summit on Teacher Diversity (King, 2016). The report reviews trends in the diversity of elementary and secondary school educators, as well as the pipeline from enrollment in postsecondary education to entrance into the teaching workforce. The report conveyed that there are substantially decreasing numbers of prospective educators across the pipeline through which teachers traditionally progress, from postsecondary education, teacher preparation programs, hiring, and retention.

The Department of Education found that, as previously mentioned, the teaching workforce is overwhelmingly homogenous (82% White, 2% Black males). Students of color are underrepresented in teacher preparation programs, comprising 38% of the postsecondary student population, yet only 25% of those enrolled in teacher preparation programs. In addition, obtaining a bachelor’s degree, which is typically a prerequisite to

entering the teaching force, limits the potential for minorities to become teachers. Approximately, 38% of bachelor's degree students were students of color, compared to 43% of public high school graduates (King, 2016).

The report also examined programs that produce a relatively higher proportion of teacher candidates who are individuals of color. For example, Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs) enroll a small proportion of individuals who are preparing to be teachers (2%), yet a significant percentage of all Black teacher candidates attended HBCUs (16%). Additionally, alternative routes to teacher certification boast an enrollment of more racially diverse populations of candidates than traditional teacher preparation programs.

These findings by the Department of Education underscore the need to address the disproportionate number of racial minority educators that are entering the field in relation to the exponentially increasing number of racial minority students that they are educating. Additionally, it is important to consider other factors that influence the teacher training pipeline; most notably, alternative teaching programs through which individuals matriculate to enter the education workforce.

Alternative Teacher Training

High teacher turnover rates and a generally low number of qualified teachers has created a peculiar scenario. While in past decades, the profession of teaching remained popular, championed by society and heralded as a desirable long-term profession, in recent years, the pool of traditional teachers has dwindled relative to the increased demand of teachers (Cotton & Wikelund, 2001; Sutchter, Darling-Hammond, & Carver-

Thomas, 2016). The lack of teachers in high need, low-resource environments has created a growing demand for teachers in these environments. This demand is being met with the growth of abbreviated teaching programs (e.g. Teach for America, Urban Teachers, American Board). These programs spend a brief amount of time (months) preparing teachers to go into these high need spaces. Limited training in high needs environments presents a mismatch of resources.

Teach for America, the largest and one of the shortest teaching programs, boasts a presence in 53 distinct communities across the country. TFA is present in at least 1 city in approximately 40 states. The populations of the communities that they serve are markedly different. According to Teach for America, it's greatest demands are in it's "high priority regions", which include Tulsa, OK, Kansas City, MI, and Milwaukee, WI. In addition, high priority areas for TFA include multiple regions across the states of Mississippi and South Dakota. Considering the populations of these regions are disproportionately African American and Native American – respectively, it is imperative to also consider the demographics of the young teachers sent into these areas and their levels of cultural preparedness to work with the students.

Teacher Stress

Research has demonstrated that teachers at the K-12 grade level experience a great amount of stress (Skinner & Beers, 2016). Teacher stress is especially important to acknowledge and address since it negatively impacts the health and job satisfaction of teachers, as well as contributes to the high teacher attrition rate. (McCarthy, Lambert & Reiser, 2014). However, while the profession of teaching has been proven to be a highly

stressful profession, the issues regarding stress within teaching communities as a function of race and ethnicity has largely gone unaddressed.

Race in the Classroom

Research has demonstrated that teacher-student race matters in the classroom, relaying that race has an impact on perceptions of students as well as student performance. In light of the disproportionate number of White teachers previously mentioned, research has shown that White children rarely experience a teacher with a different race/ethnicity from themselves, unlike their racial minority counterparts (Downer, Goble, Myers, & Pianta, 2016). Findings have demonstrated that significant positive effects occur when Black and White students are assigned to teachers of their own race/ethnicity in reading, as well as when Black, White, and Asian/Pacific Islander students are assigned to teachers of their own race/ethnicity in math. In addition, when race/ethnicity of students are the same as their teachers, previously lower-performing students, both Black and White, appear to benefit (Egalite, Kisida, & Winters, 2015) along with the rate of literacy for non-English speaking Latino children (Downer, Goble, Myers, & Pianta, 2016). In addition, research has demonstrated that minority students, particularly Black children, received disproportionately harsher behavioral assessments from White teachers (Bates & Glick, 2013; Downer et al., 2016). Collectively, these thoughts about students and the various elements that they represent and bring with them into the classroom can be a great deal for teachers to navigate.

Studies examining teacher-student dynamics at various grade levels have uncovered a number of notable findings (Gilliam, 2016). In preschool classrooms,

differences in interactions were found by race; however, those were absent after controlling for structural variables (Cassidy, et al, 2009). Racial disparities in the treatment of preschool students have been observed in several studies and these findings have demonstrated a marked importance regarding teacher-student dynamics and implicit bias (Gilliam, 2005; Gilliam et al., 2016). Research conducted by the Yale Child Study Center found that preschool teachers and staff show signs of implicit bias in administering discipline. Specifically, findings demonstrated that preschool teachers tend to more closely observe Black students, and especially boys, when they expect challenging behaviors to occur (Gilliam et al., 2016).

Black teachers were shown to hold Black students to a higher standard. Additionally, teachers being aware of information in the form of family stressors elicited empathy when students were of the same race. However, when students were of a different race, teachers became overwhelmed by the knowledge of negative family information (Gilliam et al., 2016). These feelings of being overwhelmed, particularly in the moment, can contribute to a decrease in a sense of awareness and control in the classroom when interacting with students and providing direction.

Research on teacher racial biases demonstrated that middle school teachers are more favorably inclined toward working with students who share their same ethnic background. In addition, among Black children, results indicated that having a Black teacher for a year was associated with statistically significant increases in both math and reading scores. The same was true of White children with White teachers (Dee, 2004). Hence, the existence and perpetration of racial biases is an important dynamic when

considering the social context of any institution. Moreover, it is an especially salient matter when there is a disproportionate amount of power and influence in environments such as schools where children are subject to retribution for their actions that can subsequently shape life-long perspectives of education and social interactions.

Race and Disciplinary Action

Teachers, administration and school-based police personnel often have discretion in decision making regarding disciplinary action in order to manage classrooms and other spaces within schools. Accordingly, biases that are harbored among adults within school contexts has an immediate bearing on how various situations are perceived and dealt with. A 2014 study that found that starting at age 10, Black boys are perceived to be more likely be viewed as older and guilty of suspected crimes than their White counterparts (Goff et al., 2014).

Building on the aforementioned research, a recent study conducted by Georgetown Law's Center on Poverty and Inequality demonstrated that adults harbor significant biases against Black girls starting at age 5 (the approximate age during kindergarten). A study by Georgetown Law's Center on Poverty and Inequality observed that adults view Black girls as less innocent and more adult-like than their White peers, especially in the age range of 5-14 (Epstein, Blake, & Gonzalez, 2017). The report observed that adults believe that Black girls appear older than White girls of the same age; need less nurturing, protection, support, and comforting; and are more independent than their White female counterparts.

Furthermore, according to a 2017 National Women's Law Center study focused on school pushout of girls of color, during the 2013-2014 school year, Black girls composed 15.6% of the total female school population; however, they accounted for approximately 28.2% of referrals to law enforcement and/or arrests while at school. Conversely, White girls accounted for 50.1% of the female school population; yet comprised only 34.3% of referrals and arrests while in school (Epstein & Blake, 2017).

Consequently, teachers that are attempting to administer fair and just decisions in the classroom may harbor implicit or explicit biases when managing classroom dynamics. Considering that teachers experience higher than normal amounts of stress, it may be significantly more difficult for them to leverage unbiased decisions, as they are often and necessarily, simultaneously engaged in the multiple functions.

Collectively, these issues provide ample rationale to continue building upon the body of research that seeks to understand racial dynamics at play among White and non-White individuals, particularly those teaching our youth. It is important to no longer ignore the socialization experiences of our largest population of Americans, particularly those with the greatest impact on adolescents. Research on such issues will promote professional development among educators, particularly those in diverse ethnic school settings, which will impact relational interactions among teachers, administrators, students, and parents.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Teachers deal with many daily factors that influence how they navigate their workspace: school classrooms. In the case of educators, their workspace is among the most challenging. The profession of teaching has been consistently perceived of as one of the most stressful of all occupations (Cherniss, 2016; McLean, Abry, Taylor, Jimenez, & Granger, 2017). This may be particularly true for those teachers working in low-performing, low-resource school environments, in which there is less financial support in the face of sustained demand for increasing student achievement. Such dynamics bring about a recipe for a disproportionate amount of daily challenges and stressors, which often leads to what is referred to in the field of education as *teacher burnout*. The concept of burnout, which has spread globally, is defined as a psychological syndrome of three interrelated components: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment (Schaufeli, 2017). Among teachers, burnout occurs due to prolonged exposure to emotional and interpersonal stressors on the job, accompanied by insufficient recovery, often resulting in committed teachers disengaging from their work (Maslach & Leiter, 2008).

Few research studies have looked at how different student characteristics can contribute to the stress or burnout of teachers (Klusmann, Richter & Lüdtke, 2016). Among the few studies that have examined race/ethnicity as contributing to burnout – research has identified characteristics defined as “diversity-related burnout”. Tatar and Horenczyk (2002) put forth this concept as one that could add to an understanding of the

negative impacts of daily coping on teacher that work with ethnically diverse students. Later research framed this phenomenon as “racial battle fatigue” (Call-Cummings & Martinez, 2017; Franklin, 2016). Among the Israeli teachers observed by Tatar and Horenczyk (2002), burnout was found to be correlated with – yet “empirically distinguishable” from – a traditional notion of teacher burnout. The results of this study also demonstrated that diversity-related burnout was correlated with variables related to the background of teachers (grade level and job role), to the degree of school cultural heterogeneity, and to aspects of the school organizational culture related to multiculturalism as perceived by the teacher”.

The notion of increased burnout as a function of diversity harkens to Bates and Glick’s (2013) findings that Black children receive worse assessments of their externalized behaviors, such as arguing in class or disrupting instruction when they have a White teacher, as opposed to when the teacher is Black. Additionally, teachers have rated their relationships with Black students less positively than White and Latino students (Hughes et al., 2006).

For students of color, the development of positive relationships with their teachers can be undermined by what they perceive to be as conscious and unconscious racial conflicts (McAllister & Irvine, 2000; Weinstein, Curran, & Tomlinson-Clarke, 2003). Accordingly, over the decades, Black students have reported less satisfactory and more biased relationships with their teachers than their White counterparts (Hinojosa, 2008; Marcus, Seefeldt, & Gross, 1991; McKown & Weinstein, 2002). However, in order for students to learn optimally, they must perceive of the school environment as being

supportive by school personnel who are capable of protecting them from racial microaggressions (Arrington, Hall & Stevenson, 2003; Sue & Constantine, 2007; Sue et al., 2009). Yet, this cannot be readily achieved if students are aware of (un)conscious racial conflict.

This dynamic of teacher-student interaction, and the involvement of racial dynamics will be further discussed below concerning the topic of classroom management.

Stress

The phenomenon of stress is present in many forms. It is a broadly researched topic that originally existed within the field of engineering and later found a place in the field of psychology (Beehr, 2014). Stress occurs in many situations and can generate a variety of psychological, physical and emotional reactions and conditions. Yet, despite how much research has been conducted in the field of stress, there are still caveats that have yet to be explored. In fact, the definition of stress, and the way in which it is conceptualized, still presents some inconsistencies within the field.

Lazarus's (1993) discussion of the history of stress details the origin of the terms and provides insight into how we conceptualize and interpret stress. Born out of the field of mechanical engineering, stress is the area beneath a load (weight on a structure). Accordingly, strain is the deformation of the structure bearing the load and its stress. However, the enduring understanding of *stress* is that it is "an external load or demand on the biological, social and/or psychological system" (p.2).

Lazarus (1993) further notes the inconsistencies and confusing use of terms in stress research. He notes that the medical field treats stress as a set of psychological and

physiological reactions, highlighting Selye's (1956/1976) use of the term stressor to denote the agent and stress to denote the reaction. Lazarus (1993) continues by noting that sociologists conceptualize stress as the disturbing agent and strain as the collective reaction.

Lazarus also specified Selye's (1956/1976) conceptualization of the terms *eustress*, positive stress and *distress*, negative stress that generates negative feelings and bodily states. For the purposes of this study, we will use the term "stress" with the understanding that it is a state of "distress" experienced as a function of outside stressors actively impacting an individual's psychological state.

Lazarus (1993) goes on to suggest that though there are important overlaps between psychological stress and physiological stress, they "require entirely different levels of analysis", citing his own work (Lazarus 1966; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) and further suggests that factors that are physiologically stressful are not the same as those that are psychologically stressful. However, these statements are not entirely accurate. There are variables that may have both a psychological and physiological effect on the human body. Likewise, environmental factors that cause physiological stress to the body can also have psychological effects (Farquharson et al., 2013; Hogue, Fry & Fry, 2017).

Coping with Stress

Lazarus and Folkman (1984) postulate that individuals experience stress when they perceive themselves as unable to cope with particular challenges. Coping is the method by which individuals deal with stressful encounters. Lazarus (1993) operationalized coping as a process in which a person makes ongoing efforts in both

thought and action to manage specific demands appraised as taxing or overwhelming. Research has linked teachers' appraisals of their work environment to their experiences of stress (Chang & Davis, 2009; McCarthy et al., 2012; McCarthy, Lambert & Reiser, 2014; Prilleltensky, Neff & Bessell, 2016). This suggests that teachers are most vulnerable to stress when they perceive of their school contextual demands as exceeding their ability to cope (Steinhardt, Jaggars, Faulk, & Gloria, 2011). This imbalance can result in stress, jobs dissatisfaction, emotional exhaustion and burnout (Klassen & Chiu, 2011). Typically, coping is context-specific; however, stable coping methods are developed over time. Stable coping methods will be discussed later in the theoretical considerations section of this study.

Lazarus's (1993) discussion of coping reveals two foundational ways to deal with the effect stress, by changing the physical environment in some way, *problem-focused coping*, or by changing one's perceptions about the source of stress, *emotion-focused coping*. For example, a teacher may opt to use problem-focused coping when dealing with stress at work by actively making efforts to better the situation or choosing to leave their position and going to another school. Conversely, an example of emotion-focused coping would be to use techniques such as "denial" or "distancing". Denying the existence of an incident or distancing oneself away from an issue are both convenient methods of dealing with an unwanted issue, particularly if one does not feel adequately prepared, equipped, or skilled to deal with that issue. Denial, or ignoring the issue, may be an easy task if incidents are ambiguous, such as understanding if an incident is due to racial dynamics. Distancing oneself from the source of a challenge or stressor can

potentially be problematic, particularly for an individual, such as a teacher, who is required to remain in a setting among the stressors on a daily basis. In the case of teachers, if the source of stress is the interaction of the students, there may be a limited number of ways to deal with proximity to that stress, for instance, socially distancing (e.g., paying less attention to the students themselves) or physically distancing (e.g., sending students out of the classroom).

Stress and Psychological Outcomes

For the purposes of this study, aspects of the psychological outcomes of stress are most pertinent. Mental stress has adverse health outcomes as a result of internal, individual factors, external environmental or interaction of both (Pickering, 2001; Varner et al., 2017).

Jackson, Knight and Rafferty (2010) demonstrated that those living in “chronically stressful environments” often cope with stressors by engaging in unhealthy behaviors that may have protective mental-health effects. In a study using data from the first 2 waves (1986 and 1989) of the American’s Changing Lives study conducted by the Survey Research Center, Institute for Social Research at the University of Michigan, there was a strong association between stressors and chronic health conditions for both White and African American participants. Among White participants, the presence of unhealthy behavior indicated a strong relationship between stressors and exhibiting criteria of major-depression. However, African Americans were found to most likely fit a major-depression diagnosis if they had not engaged in unhealthy behaviors versus in comparison to those who had engaged in some type of maladaptive coping behavior

(Jackson, Knight & Rafferty; 2010). These findings suggest that African Americans who endure chronic stressors are more likely to exhibit depressive symptoms, whereas those who elect to engage in maladaptive coping are able to somehow relieve stress.

Some research has found that the detrimental effects of work-related stress may be mediated by increased heart rate reactivity to a stressful day or increased cardiovascular stress reactivity (Steptoe & Cropley, 2000; Vrijkotte, van Doornen, & de Geus, 2000). Accordingly, work-related stress and teacher burnout may introduce physically detrimental outcomes that, in turn, inhibit teachers performing optimally. As a result, concern for teacher well-being and their experiences of different sources of stress should be a point of concern for all of those committed to providing the best learning environment for students.

However, despite the substantive research that has been conducted on the role of stress, one aspect of the phenomenon that has received relatively little attention until recently is the concept of racial stress, or stress caused by racially-charged interpersonal encounters. Teachers in racially diverse classrooms, must deal with multiple forms of stress, including racial stress as a function of their interactions with racially and culturally diverse students. Race-related stress may also arise by observing social conflict among students themselves or with other school staff members.

Racial Stress

The early work of Harrell (2000) defines race-related stress as the “race related transaction between individuals or groups and their environment that emerge from the dynamics of racism and that tax or exceed existing individual and collective resources or

threaten well-being” (p. 45). Accordingly, *racial stress* is a sense of threat to well-being when an individual or group perceives themselves to be unequipped and overwhelmed by a race related interpersonal encounter. Thoits (1991) noted that in addition to general life stressors, which everyone experiences (e.g., financial worries, problems at work, traffic congestion), racial and ethnic minorities also may experience stressors that are directly related to their social identity by virtue of phenotypical expressions and cultural background. This phenomenon has been reinforced by the subsequent findings with populations of African American and Latino young adults (Lantrip et al., 2015; Sanchez & Awad, 2016). An individual’s experience of racial stress may differ in tangent with the conceptualization and experience of – and beliefs about – what it means to be a member of a particular racial group. An individual’s experience of stress from a racial-related incident may be dependent on their previous experiences and meaning-making around race (Hughes, 2009; Hughes and Johnson, 2001). This process of learning about race and racial dynamics is generally referred to as *racial socialization* (Umana-Taylor et al., 2014; Hughes et al., 2006).

The collective experiences around race subsequently facilitate a process by which we form an identity relative to racial categories that we learn – a racial identity. In short, the potential to experience racial stress and how it is appraised is determined by past experiences of racial socialization and racial identity development at the time of the incident. This ability to recognize racial incidents is referred to as *racial literacy*, the ability to read, recast, and resolve racial stressful encounters (Stevenson, 2014).

Whether or not individuals experience racial stress may be determined by their level of socialization around race before they experience a specific incident. A lack of racial socialization may render the observer unaware of the presence of racial factors when a situation is ambiguous. However, if a situation is overtly racial, an observer with no socialization may experience high levels of anxiety or confusion regarding how to interpret and or cope with the circumstance. While the aforementioned experiences are more likely to be the circumstance of many White Americans, minority populations, particularly African American and Latino American populations are often socialized by their parents. The following section will discuss racial socialization and its relationship to racial stress.

In addition, an increasing number of studies have demonstrated a phenomenon termed *vicarious racial discrimination*, defined as indirect discrimination experienced as a result of hearing about or seeing others' experiences of racism (Mansouri & Jenkins, 2010). Subsequent research has shown that this indirect experience of discrimination may lead to negative health outcomes (Harrell, 2000). Building upon this research, the work of Stevenson and Coleman (2013) note the concept of *vicarious racial stress*, defined as the stress that individuals may experience as a result of observing the racially stressful encounters of others.

Thus, the notion of racial stress may serve to increase understanding of the stress, particularly *vicarious racial stress*, that teacher may experience as they observe the interactions of students with their peers and/or other educators at school. Importantly, an

awareness of such interactions may be the result of how individuals have been socialized to perceive social incidents and their proximity to the issue of race.

Racial Socialization

Racial socialization refers to the process of teaching children about their racial identity and racism in society (Hughes, 1997). Racial socialization messages increase children's awareness of prejudice and discrimination in order to provide them with coping strategies for overcoming racial barriers (Caughy, O'Campo, Randolph, & Nikerson, 2002; Coard et al., 2004; Hughes, 1997; Hughes & Chen, 1999). This early foundational research, predominantly focused on the practices of African American children and parents, builds upon that of *socialization*, the process that all parents undertake to prepare their children for the complexities of navigating social context and for interactions and life beyond the immediate family unit and in preparation for adulthood (Thompson, 1994). Parents, the main agents of socialization, prepare their children to develop skills necessary to be competent in their roles as adults in a particular population or cultural group (Caughy et al., 2002; Demo & Hughes, 1990; Phinney & Rosenthal, 1992; Tang, McLoyd, & Hallman, 2016). However, given the amount of time adolescents spend with others, including extended family, teachers/educators, and extracurricular program staff, researchers have come to express the increasing need to understand other agents involved in the racial socialization of children (Umana-Taylor et al., 2014).

Much of the research that has been conducted focused on African American families; however, in recent years, research looking at Latino families and other ethnic groups (Chen, 2016; Hughes, 2003; Hughes et al., 2006) has increased.

Below, literature concerned with race-related stress and coping will be reviewed. In the context of research, the notion of stress resulting from racial encounters has been measured as (dis)stress as a function of perceived racial discrimination that has taken place in one's past or present. However, there is a growing body of research concerned with students' perceived discrimination that takes place in the classroom, which will be discussed in future sections.

Racial Stress and Coping among Racial Minority Status Groups

Racial socialization practices have been observed in a number of minority groups in American. There have been studies on Jewish (Davey, Fish, Askew, & Ribila, 2003), Japanese, Chinese (Rosenthal & Feldman, 1992), Mexican (Okagaki & Moore, 2000), Hispanic (Andujo, 1988, Tang et al., 2016) populations. The occurrence of these practices has been associated with a number of intentions, including continuing cultural practices to preparing children for experiences of discrimination.

Perceived discrimination, the most common concept taken up by researchers, is considered to be a social stressor that gives rise to psychological distress—especially among marginalized populations such as racial/ethnic minorities and women (Landrine et al., 2006)

Several studies have detailed the physiological and psychological mechanisms that are associated with stress induced by racism and discrimination among minorities

(Carter 2007; Landrine & Klonoff, 1996; Schmitt, Branscomb, Postmes, & Garcia, 2014; Villegas-Gold & Yoo, 2014). Perceptions of racial stress may have psychological effects leading to the development of anger, anxiety, paranoia, hopelessness, frustration, resentment and fear. In line to aforementioned physiological responses to general stress, racial stress has been found to generate issues with immunity, and cardiovascular system functionality (Harrell, 2000).

Miller and Kaiser (2001) suggest that that members of stigmatized groups develop adaptive strategies for coping with prejudice over time. For many, the initial development of these coping strategies may have begun early as research has shown that some parents socialize their children in preschool (Caughy, O'Campo, Randolph, & Nickerson, 2002). This practice of racial socialization may be necessary to maintain the culture and identity of marginalized populations in a society that largely ignores its existence in mainstream culture and/or sustains prejudice. Thus, these socialization practices reinforce a sense of pride and provides the tools necessary to deal with racism and prejudice from other groups.

As a result of these continued practices, some have theorized that these cumulative experiences lessen the negative consequences that would otherwise be associated with perceiving prejudice (Allison, 1998). Consequently, some members of minority status groups grow up with an awareness that they are victims of racial bias and prejudice, which then results in the development of what Pinel (1999) refers to as “stigma consciousness”. Pinel (1999) further put forth that “psychological coping strategies cannot be activated” until the targets can specifically contribute the actions to prejudice,

which may be difficult in a social context where prejudice is” ambiguous”. This ambiguity has been noted as a consistent element of stigmatization (Crocker, Major, & Steele, 1998).

While Crocker and Major (1989) argued that ambiguity serves as a protective factor by allowing an individual to disassociate an act of prejudice to preserve their own image of self, Major, Quinton, & McCoy (2002) put forth that ambiguity in a potentially racial interaction “is not a benign psychological state”. Instead it is “highly distressing” and “consumes cognitive resources” (p. 259).

Salvatore and Shelton’s (2007) research on cognitive dissonance as a function of racial prejudices resulted in Black subjects having the greatest cognitive impact when the evidence for racial prejudice was ambiguous (as opposed to overt). They concluded that ambiguous racial bias and uncertainty about others’ prejudice leaves marginalized individuals unable to discern which coping strategies would be more appropriate to employ in a specific situation and decreases performance on cognitive tasks. This is a notable finding considering that many forms of prejudice are subtle acts, which many researchers have termed as *microaggressions*.

Racial Stress and Coping among African Americans

The majority of literature on racial socialization has been concerned with the practices of African American families. Over the years, racial socialization has been conceived to be the transmittance of various explicit and implicit messages that provide African American youth with healthy methods for coping with the realities of racism and race-related hostility in their social contexts (Bynum, Burton, & Best, 2007; Stevenson,

Cameron, Herrero-Taylor, & Davis, 2002). Findings have demonstrated that among African Americans, racial socialization may serve as a buffer against the effects of racism (Bowman & Howard, 1985; Stevenson, 1994).

Early research findings estimated that 73 to 79% of African American adults engaged in race-related conversations with their parents as adolescents (Biafora et al, 1993; Sanders Thompson, 1994). However, there are a number of factors that influence the initiation, frequency and types of messages that African Americans receive (Hughes et al., 2006), for example, after a child has experienced a negative racial encounter (Bynum, Burton, & Best, 2007). In addition, early research demonstrated that older parents may be more likely to be intentional about engaging in racial socialization than younger parents due to a greater number of experiences with racialized encounters (Thorton et al., 1990).

Despite this preparation for racist and discriminatory encounters, for African American youth and adults, repeated exposure to racial stressors has persisted to have a negative effect on psychological health (Broman, 1997; Utsey, 1999; Utsey, Chae, Brown, & Kelly, 2002; Varner et al., 2017). Specifically, racial stress has been associated with increased likelihood of the development of hypertension, high blood pressure and cardiovascular disease (Din-Dzeitham et al., 2004; Krieger & Sidney, 1996, Schmitt et al., 2014).

Importantly, Scott (2003) found that the frequency to which participants received socialization messages concerning racism from their parents and/or guardians was related to the use of approach coping strategies but unrelated to avoidance coping strategies. For

African American women in particular, Hughes and Dodge (1997) found that institutional discrimination and inter-personal prejudice correlated more with job quality than occupational stressors such as low task variety, decision authority, heavy workloads, and poor supervision.

Racial Stress and Coping among Latino Americans

The research on Latino populations has been largely folded into some of the studies that look at African American students; however, while the population of Latinos in American has been increasing, the research dedicated to that group has not been reflected in the field.

Similar to Black populations, perceived discrimination has also been found to negatively impact the mental health of Latinos. However, for Latinos, there is a weaker relationship between perceived discrimination and mental health than for African Americans. While Latinos have also reported fewer experiences of discrimination than Black populations, those who do experience race-based discrimination reported more negative states of mental health than those who reported having not experienced discrimination (Stuber et al., 2003).

Notably, Burgos and Rivera (2009) found that Black Latino youth developed significantly higher symptoms of depression than did their non-Black Latino counterparts. This finding indicates a need to continue exploring the differences among cultural groups and the need to develop interventions that are fitting.

Racial Stress and Coping among Asian Americans and Native Americans

Research on Asian and Native American families observed that racial socialization takes place by transmitting cultural values, beliefs and practices to their child by via speaking their native language, eating native foods, and partaking in cultural traditions (Zimmerman, Ramirez-Valles, Washienko, Walter, & Dyer, 1996).

Interestingly, in a study of racial/ethnic group identity and experience of racism, Utsey, et al (2002) found that Asian Americans indicated significantly higher levels of experience of institutional racism than did their Latino counterparts.

Research by Liang, Li and Kim (2004) observed that race-related stress may not be linked to decreased self-esteem and increased psychological or physiological symptoms for Asian Americans. However, the authors noted that the cultural diversity within their sample of Asian Americans may impact their results. Furthermore, more recent research has demonstrated that dealing with stigma and racial microaggressions stress impacts the sleep of Asian American young adults (Ong, Cerrada, Lee & Williams, 2017).

Racial Stress and Coping among White Americans

There has been very little research conducted that examines the role of racial socialization, racial identity or race-related stress and coping in the lives of White individuals (Michael & Bartoli, 2014; Hagerman, 2014; Underhill, 2016; Hagerman, 2017; Strain, 2017). While a limited amount of early research indicated that some middle school aged White children were unaware of their Whiteness (Hagerman, 2014; Lewis, 2001), there has been a substantive amount of research that has looked at the existence of

racial bias. Baron and Banaji (2006) define racial bias as the implicit or explicit racial attitudes toward outgroup members, which develop early in life and remain relatively stable over the course of the lifespan. In their research, they found that White children tend to have more pro-group bias, whereas Black children do not. Implicit attitudes are difficult to measure due to them existing at an unconscious level and are thus, resistant to change. However, research has demonstrated that making individuals conscious of their implicit biases and providing them strategies to combat existing attitudes results in a dramatic reduction of negative implicit bias (Devine, Forscher, Austin, & Cox, 2012).

Similarly, there are very few studies that focus on White racial identity development or racial socialization practices of White parents in order to prepare their children for such encounters. Thus, it appears that research has largely ignored efforts to measure these social exchanges. The research that does exist suggests that White families seem to ignore take either a colorblind messaging approach to discussions about racism or avoids discussions about race altogether (Michael, 2014).

Historically, the perpetration of anti-White sentiment in public spaces is relatively uncommon occurrence; therefore, it is less likely that being the targets of racial bias are not salient issues for White individuals in America. Early research on the issue found that Whites individuals are indeed less stigma conscious than their Black counterparts and consequently have been observed to be less likely to perceive an incident as demonstrating prejudice during an ambiguous experience (Pinel, 1999). Due to a lack of experience with racial bias, Whites have been observed to be less likely to be sensitive to subtle instances of prejudice, regardless of the race of the targeted individual (Inman &

Baron, 1996; Miller 2014). However, Salvatore and Shelton's (2007) exploration of cognitive dissonance as a function of racial prejudices resulted in White subjects having the greatest cognitive impact when the evidence for racial prejudice was overt.

Relative to the number of studies focused on the racial socialization practices of White parents, a disproportionate amount of research is concerned with White parents who choose to adopt across racial lines. Thus, while there remains a dearth of studies concerned with the racial socialization of White children, there are a relatively significant number of studies focusing on interracial (or transracial) adoption (Crolley-Simic & Vonk, 2008; Csizmadia, Rollins, & Kaneakua, 2014; Smith, Juarez, & Jacobson, 2011). Findings from such studies has yielded results that indicate that socialization increase a sense of belonging (Hellerstedt et al., 2008; Thomas & Tessler, 2007). While findings have demonstrated that most White parents actively socialize their adopted children via messages about their backgrounds, White parents of White children choose to have a "color-blind" approach (Lee, Grotevant, Hellerstedt, & Gunnar, 2006; Lee, Vonk, & Crolley-Simic, 2015).

For many White individuals, they may avoid talking about racial ideas and circumstances in their households because they believe it will instead cause racial/ethnic division and/or because it is simply uncomfortable (Lee et al, 2006). For many, discussing racial matters is an emotional topic that can bring about feelings of guilt, anger and anxiety (Spanierman & Heppner, 2004). These feelings are understandably tough for many to deal with; however, these feelings may be increasingly difficult to deal with if – and when – racial social interactions instigate such thoughts and feelings while tasked

with managing a classroom of students and/or advocating for students or faculty in the presence of administration.

Since racial socialization for many ethnic minority families occurs as a function of the discrimination that prior generations have experienced, it may be that given the lack of experience discrimination of White individuals as compared to Black individuals (LaVeist, 2005), there is not personal motivation to socialize the next generation around such issues. In other instances, there may be a tendency on the part of White families to deny the existence of racial matters.

Summary of Racial Stress and Coping

In this section, racial stress and the manner in which individuals cope was discussed. While there is a relatively small amount of research that focuses on race-related stress, researchers have overwhelmingly focused on minority populations.

As noted, the research on minority status populations is disproportionately robust, focusing on African American and Latino American populations, indicating that there has been a greater interest and need to understand how race-related stress has affected these populations. There is a dearth of research on White Americans family practices. Of the relatively few published studies concerned with the racial socialization practices of White parents focus on those parents that have chosen the relatively uncommon practice of adopting minority-status children. This highlights a lack of focus of the research field to actively seek to measure an important occurrence – or lack thereof. This highlights the need to increase efforts to understand how White families actively socialize children around race and race-related stressors, such as discrimination. Michael's (2014) findings

suggest an additional need to explore why White families may actively attempt to avoid racial socialization.

Accordingly, the benefit of explicitly teaching racial coping skills is that individuals learn to reappraise racial stressors as less threatening, which can then lead to more productive outcomes (Karp & Harris, 2011).

Stress in the Workplace (Occupational Stress)

Stress in the workplace is extremely common and an important topic of research. Stress resulting from one's job has been conceptualized as occupational stress and associated with the concept of burnout and job satisfaction (Cherniss, 2016).

The stress experienced in the workplace can have a number of varied sources and result in a number of resulting outcomes. The most prevalent job stressors causing strain are instances of high psychological demand and low decision latitude on the job (Karasek, Bakker, Marxer, Ahlbom, & Theorell, 1981), or effort-reward imbalance at work, are associated with increased blood pressure (James & Bovbjerg, 2001). Considering these strain factors, it is not surprising that teaching has been found to be one of the most stressful occupations.

Aligned with the previous discussion of stress research, research has documented that job satisfaction among African Americans decreased with the increased perception of race-related stressors (Holder & Vaux, 1998). Research by Din-Dzeitham et al. (2004), involving 356 African American adults indicated that the likelihood of hypertension significantly increased with higher levels of perceived stress following racism from non-African-Americans in the work place. Findings further indicated that blood pressure

levels significantly increased following racial stressful encounters with non-African American coworkers (Din-Dzeitham, Nembhard, Collins, & Davis; 2004).

Stress among Teachers (Teacher Stress)

Prilleltensky, Neff and Bessell (2016) define teacher stress as an imbalance between risk and protective factors, which emanates from risk factors that stem from personal, interpersonal, and organizational levels. Teacher stress is especially important to address given the negative impact that it has on the health and job satisfaction of teachers, consequently influencing the high teacher attrition rate. (McCarthy, Lambert and Reiser, 2014).

Research has found that situational constraints greatly impose on teachers' capacity to manage stress, regardless of its intensity (Cooper & Travers, 2012). Serving in the role of teaching children, an individual has a substantial responsibility to conduct themselves in a manner that is deemed acceptable by society, parents, administration and school leadership. Therefore, given that teaching youth often does not allow for voluntary breaks and downtime, it may be particularly burdensome, to continue throughout the day without a means to relieve the stress of an encounter. Over time, the continued inhibition of normal stress responses may lead to potentially health consequences (Van Der Linde, 2000). Accordingly, it is of no surprise that chronic work stress has been linked with depressive symptoms among teachers (Steinhardt, Jaggars, Faulk, & Gloria 2011).

Many teachers have reported feeling a sense of isolation in the daily course of their work (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1992). For many individuals, isolation can lead to feelings of loneliness and amplify a sense of separation (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999;

Lee & Goldstein, 2016). Consequently, teachers may struggle to deal with forging a sense of belonging in a daily work context that is not conducive to establishing close, consistent connections with peers. Thus, it is important for school administration to provide a strong sense of support.

While research has demonstrated that there are many variables that induce stress for teachers. However, one factor that has seldom been observed in research is the effects of dealing with issues of race – both in conversations with colleagues, administration, and school leadership. The topic of racial stress is discussed in the next section.

Racially-Induced Stress among Teachers

Studying the racial stress that occurs among teachers may help to explain how preservice teachers perceptions of – and ways of coping with – student successes and failures may contribute to systematic inequalities (Johnson & Avelar La Salle, 2010; Johnson, Slaughter-Defoe, & Banerjee, 2011). However, few studies have examined the stress that teachers experience as a function of dealing with racial issues in the school environment.

Despite the growing rates of diversity in recent decades, researchers have noted that schools of education do not train nor evaluate how well teachers navigate the politics of racial stress and coping in the classroom (Karp & Harris, 2011; Ladson-Billings, 2001). Other researchers have noted that teacher training programs allocate very little, if any, time to the understanding of racial and cultural dynamics and the potential conflicts and problem-solving skills needed to be effectively resolve such issues (McAllister & Irvine, 2000).

Racially-Induced Stress among Teachers of Different Ethnic Backgrounds

Historically, the composition of the teaching workforce in the United States has been mostly White and mostly female. Despite the widespread growth in diversity, training teachers to be culturally competent rarely occurs (Sleeter, 2001). Accordingly, teachers likely bring their long-held – conscious and unconscious – biases into the classroom. This may be most dissonant inducing for classrooms with White teachers and minority students that have been historically marginalized in the school context.

Research has shown that racial differences in the perception of school racial climate, school membership, discipline management, racial identity or racial coping such as how teachers differ in their management of racial tensions, affect achievement (Mattison & Aber, 2007).

Self-Efficacy and Teaching

Self-efficacy, a central component of general teaching success, plays a significant role in classroom management (Wolters & Daughtery, 2007); thus, it is an important concept to consider when discussing a teacher's ability to perform both inside of the classroom with students and outside of the classroom when interacting with parents, administration, and school leadership to be successful at all facets of their job responsibilities. A teacher's confidence and belief in – and ability to – manage their classroom on a daily basis is imperative to providing a positive learning environment for students. However, what it means to manage a classroom is a considerably broad topic.

Self-efficacy refers to the belief in one's abilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce desired results (Bandura, 1997). Self-efficacy is

related to cognitive engagement, performance, causal attributions persistence, analytical thinking, and is susceptible to stress and depression (Bandura et al, 1996). However, person-environment theorists perceive high self-efficacy as a psychological protective factor against stress (Fida, Laschinger, & Leiter, 2018; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2017).

Vicarious Self-Efficacy

According to Bandura (1997), watching a model performing a task reduces an individual's anxiety level and increases personal efficacy beliefs. Bandura (1997) believes that these *vicarious experiences* are believed to be especially important for the self-appraisal of self-efficacy. Beliefs around self-efficacy may also be impacted by vicarious experiences such as having a model of behavior to learn from and social comparisons of an individual's competence with the accomplishments of others. The influence of vicarious beliefs is dependent upon the degree to which individuals compare themselves to others.

Classroom Management

Nearly fifty years ago, research on classroom management centered on understanding the problems that students had and helping them to better understand themselves, which was thought to generate more productive classroom behavior. By the 1970s, research shifted to focused on controlling disruptive behavior and employing behavior management techniques (Canter, 1976).

Early research by Kounin (1970) observed relationships between teachers' management and instructional actions and classroom behavior. In this study, thousands of hours of what was perceived to be well-managed classrooms were videotaped and

analyzed. The goal of the student was to examine how teachers reacted to student misbehavior. While there was no significant difference in how teacher responded, researchers did note a difference in how teachers acted prior to students misbehaving. Thus, this study shifted the focus of “classroom management” from teacher reaction to teacher prior actions. Kounin (1970) found that teachers who had effective classroom management were able to communicate to students that s/he was constantly aware of classroom behavior in multiple ways as well as maintaining good pacing and transitions throughout classes.

Building upon Kounin’s foundational work, Emmer, Evertson and Anderson (1980) conducted a study with 27 third grade teachers in the beginning of the school year to establish positive management techniques. Effective managers were teachers who assertively managed behavior and instructions, assessed potential student concerns and dealt appropriate with constraints. These teachers established rules and procedures were accessible conducive to student understanding.

By 1995, a fundamental publication posited that well-managed classrooms require a teacher that has “a variety of knowledge and skills that allow them to structure the physical class environment effectively, establish rules and procedures, develop relationships with children, and maintain attention and engagement in academic activities” (LePage et al., 2005).

Later research indicated the role empathy in classroom management. Marzano’s (2003) meta-analysis of over 100 studies, “high quality teacher-student relationships” was found to be the key component of classroom management, yielding 31% less

discipline problems throughout the school year. These types of relationships are considered to have appropriate levels of dominance, appropriate levels of cooperation, and awareness of high-need students. Subsequent research studies have demonstrated that the quality teacher-student relationships predict student classroom social and academic success as well as teacher competence (Bergin & Bergin, 2009; Minor, Onwuegbuzie, Witcher, & James, 2002; O'Connor & McCartney, 2007).

Milner and Tenore's (2010) research demonstrated that gaining an understanding of the power among students within the class can strengthen teacher-student relationships within the classroom. In addition, their findings also indicated that establishing shared connections and making time for personal discussion facilitates the establishment of strong relationships.

Classroom Management in Diverse Schools (Culturally Responsive Classroom Management)

Teachers in culturally diverse school settings must take the concept of classroom management a step further. This is achieved via the integration of culturally responsive teaching methods by intentionally responding to the needs of culturally and ethnically diverse students (Glasgow, McNary, & Hicks, 2006). Accordingly, as Weinstein, Tomlinson-Clarke and Curran (2004) note, the research on classroom management has moved away from student-focused behaviorism toward a teacher-focused perspective, which promotes the significance of social decision making, self-regulation, and community building. Thus, Weinstein et al (2004) contend that the role of the teacher is to promote appropriate behavior and personal responsibility. Accordingly, Weinstein et

al.'s (2004) model has divided the concept of culturally responsive classroom management into five themes: 1) awareness of one's own ethnocentric biases; 2) knowledge of students' cultural background; 3) awareness of the broader social, economic and political context; 4) ability and willingness to use culturally appropriate management strategies; and 5) commitment to building caring classroom communities.

In order to achieve optimal success as a leader, one should be aware of one's biases and prejudices and the potential issues that they may cause. This is particularly true when leading diverse groups of any kind, including racially diverse groups. Many individuals, particularly White Americans, perceive their own culture as the standard or norm by which others should be measured. This may occur as both a conscious and unconscious practice. The presence of this dynamic in the classroom may have unacknowledged yet detrimental effects on students.

The acceptance of White, middle-income perspectives, programs and structures as the social norm is common among teachers (Weinstein et al., 2004). This, often unconscious perspective, coupled with a desire to teach from a "colorblind" approach allows for teachers to continue to not acknowledge the challenges that may face socially marginalized students. In some instances, this may be used by teachers to consciously or unconsciously avoid dealing with issues of race and culture that they may feel uncomfortable and unable to properly address.

As previously noted, research has shown stark differences in how teachers respond to and discipline Black students and how this consequently effects the academic achievement of Black students with Black teachers (Dee, 2004; Hinojosa, 2008).

Studies have shown that this dynamic begins in preschool (Gilliam, 2005). Non-Black preschool teachers perceive Black students to be less prepared for school, less accepted by peers, and more conflictual in teacher-child relationships (Yates & Marcelo, 2014). Furthermore, it has been well-documented that Black students are disproportionately more likely to receive unfair and harsh punitive actions for lesser infractions (Gregory, Skiba, & Noguera, 2010; Hinojosa, 2008; Skiba, Eckes, & Brown, 2010; Skiba, Nardo, & Peterson, 2002). In fact, Okonofua and Eberhardt (2015) found that teachers, regardless of race, are harsher in their discipline of Black students than with students of other ethnicities.

Downey & Pribesh (2004) contend that bias among White teachers is more powerful than student opposition culture to explain why White teachers evaluate Black students more harshly. Some researchers have indicated that cultural misinterpretation explains White teacher biases when perceiving the cultural communication styles of Black students (Neal, McCray, Webb-Johnson, & Bridgest, 2003).

In addition, with the exception of Kounin's (1970) multi-sample studies, which included kindergarten, elementary, high school and college students, the research that has been conducted on this topic have been disproportionately focused exclusively on elementary school teachers and their students (Bohn, Roehrig, & Pressley, 2004; Emmer, Everytson, & Anderson, 1980).

Nevertheless, Milner (2012) posits that teachers should have a critical view of race and self, otherwise, there will be an inability to properly recognize the role of race in the classroom and school. Subsequently, teachers (and other staff members) must

understand themselves in relation to other members of their community, including students, parents, and colleagues (Milner & Tenore, 2010).

Conceivably, these same interpersonal dynamics play a role when considering other leadership roles in other spaces. One such social space is that of school leadership (administration) and faculty staff. The failure to understand the racial dynamics that exists within an organization may lead to negative social experiences of members of that community.

Summary of Classroom Management

In this section, the factors involved in successful classroom management were discussed. In particular, classroom management in diverse settings is detailed and the variables to facilitate positive outcomes, specifically stress.

Research indicates that there has been an important shift in focus from student behavior to teacher performance when considering how well positive classroom social dynamics remain fluid. Teacher characteristics are significantly associated with positive student-teacher relationships and successful student conduct. The important characteristics of teacher behavior include gaining a firm understanding of student dynamics and developing positive relational connections with students that serve to build relationships and trust.

Though there is a large amount of research that investigate classroom management and issues of diversity, there are no studies that solicit perceptions of stress generated by daily racial issues and on how that may influence teachers' perceptions of their ability to classroom management.

Stress of any kind may impact a teacher's performance, particularly teachers who are university understood to have one of the most stressful jobs. In particular, the racial stress that occurs inside and outside of the class stands to have an impact on the functionality of teachers as they strive to perform their jobs. Stress experienced by an employee in the workplace can have a number of results, including increasing frustration and decreasing a sense of belonging. The next section will discuss sense of belonging and the stress experience in the workplace as it relates to racial strife.

Self-efficacy was also discussed, as it is important in understanding teacher belief in their ability to manage their classrooms. In addition, it is believed that self-efficacy is important to understanding a teacher's connection to their workplace (i.e. sense of belonging), which will be discussed in the next section.

While Bandura (1997) theorized that there is no specific manner by which to improve self-efficacy because there are numerous sources, it is the position of this study that one such means of increasing teacher self-efficacy is to increase racial socialization of teachers (i.e. relay knowledge of the existence and role of race and racism in daily interactions).

According to Fimian, Lieberman and Fastenau (1991), measures of teacher stress have focused on the strain of classroom and time management, socioemotional manifestations of stress, relationship with fellow teachers, teacher esteem and teaching specific subject areas. However, while there are measures that consider stress as it relates to self-efficacy, there are no measures of teacher self-efficacy with regard to racial conflict.

Sense of Belonging

The concept of sense of belonging is one of the foundational phenomena that have been examined for decades. As a portion of his well-known motivational hierarchy model, Maslow (1968) posited that human beings desire for a sense of belonging is a fundamental need after physiological and safety needs are met. He further posited that a sense of belonging (along with the aforementioned needs) is the foundation upon which esteem is built, which are necessary to achieve a state of self-actualization. Maslow (1968) put forth that adequate satisfaction and fulfillment of the need of belonging allows for physical, emotional, behavioral and mental well-being whereas a lack of feelings of belongingness, love and respect can lead to emotional breakdowns.

Some researchers (Baumeister and Leary, 1995) would later suggest that need for belonging is as important as the need for food. In their belongingness hypothesis, they indicate that there is a pervasive drive to form and maintain a minimal quantity of positive, significant interpersonal relationships. Baumeister and Leary (1995) state: Satisfying this drive involves two criteria: First, there is a need for frequent, actively pleasant interactions with a few other people, and, second, these interactions must take place in the context of temporarily stable and enduring framework of affect concern for each other's welfare. (p. 497)

Baumeister and Leary (1995), postulate that many human emotions can be explained by a lack of sense of belonging. Positive sense of belonging can generate positive outcomes such as happiness whereas a lack of sense of belonging can generate feelings of loneliness, anxiety, depression, and high levels of stress. Consequently, the

development of a positive perception of sense of belonging has been shown to decrease stress and anxiety and self-consciousness (Goodenow, 1993; Roeser et al, 1996).

Goodenow (1993) further extended the research of belongingness, specifically looking at how the dynamic manifests in educational environments among adolescents. This research suggested that more than simple perceived liking or warmth, sense of belonging “also involves support and respect for personal autonomy and for the student as an individual” (p. 25).

Goodenow’s (1993) on adolescents in educational contexts suggested that one reason that there is a poor fit between opportunities provided in school environments and the developmental needs of adolescents is that schools do not respond adequately to students’ needs for belonging and support. For racially marginalized groups, in particular, research suggests that feelings of belonging and support are especially important (Becker & Luthar, 2002).

Workplace/School Connectedness (Sense of Belonging)

The degree to which individual feels connected to their job is a topic of research that has received increasing attention. Having a positive connection or sense of belonging to one’s workplace is closely related to job satisfaction (Caprara et al., 2006; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2014). There is a growing body of research on the sense of belonging and schools has become more substantial given that a sense of belonging to an organization as a result of the organization putting forth effort to support employees, allows for a “gain a sense of ‘family’ with fellow employees (Drury, 2004).

In the case for teachers, research shows that the use of servant leadership by school principals to empower teachers and foster autonomy and choice, encourages teachers to develop a sense of ownership in the decision-making process. Furthermore, demonstrating interest in teacher needs creates a culture where teachers are committed to improving school climate and student growth (Collie, Shapka & Perry, 2012).

Summary of Sense of Belonging

This section discussed sense of belonging in the workplace, specifically within school environments. The relationship between sense of school belonging and stress, as well as workplace/occupational stress was reviewed to detail a better understanding of how individuals cope with stress in the workplace.

However, the range of research studies that investigate sense of belonging within school contexts are relatively limited to student populations. There have been very few studies that have looked at teachers' sense of student belonging within schools. Consequently, there are very few studies that look at administrative and school leadership support as factors of facilitating sense of belonging among teachers. There is also no research that looks at the relationship between sense of belonging and various forms of teacher self-efficacy (e.g. classroom management or ability to motivate students). However, there is no research that has examined how these phenomena manifest in K-12 school contexts.

Summary of Literature

Collectively, the aforementioned literature indicates the various dynamics that take place in classrooms across the nation. Teachers, more than in previous years, must

navigate additional layers of social context in order to best relate to their students in their efforts to maximize productivity throughout the school year. Already tasked with expectations of cohesively moving classrooms of students along an academic continuum of greatness, teachers are now expected to continue to do so with little guidance regarding the ways to communicate with students of differing backgrounds. While these unique circumstances generate tangible strife, in the form of unwarranted biases, resulting in racial microaggressions and disproportionate punishments lobbied against students of color.

Theoretical Frameworks

In an effort to optimally assess the aforementioned phenomena, several theories will be used to examine the social dynamics and stress in the school context. The first theoretical framework that will be utilized is *Critical Race Theory*, which provides an understanding of the political and social implications of institutionalized racism; thereby allowing for an examination of its impact on educational systems. As previously mentioned, the *Phenomenological Variant Ecological Systems Theory* will be used to examine developmental challenges with consideration of social, historical and cultural context. The third framework, the *Racial/Ethnic Coping and Agency Socialization Theory* will be used to consider how individuals and populations cope with racial/ethnic issues and what this means for socialization processes.

Critical Race Theory (CRT)

Critical Race Theory posits that racism is a normal occurrence that is engrained in the daily experiences, political structures and legal systems and often goes unnoticed by

those who perpetrate it (Bell, 1992). Subsequently, Tate (1997) utilized CRT as a means of examining educational inequalities. Ladson-Billings (2002) then expounded upon this concept, solidifying the theories use in the realm of education.

Critical Race Theory is used to understand how Whiteness is held “as a standard in policy against which to measure the progress and success of people of color”, while allows for inherent racism in policies to become visible in order to be addressed (Iverson, 2007).

Iverson (2007) posits that CRT is a beneficial tool when analyzing or developing diversity action plans since it allows for the unpacking of assumptions deemed as objective and unbiased. Reassessing the pre-established standards for normalcy is fundamental in efforts to create a healthy, diversified organization.

Those responsible for the development of social initiatives, particularly when they are a member of the majority group, may not be aware that they are failing to acknowledge the role that race plays in the interactions of various members of an organization.

Phenomenological Variant Ecological Systems Theory (PVEST)

Phenomenological Variant of Ecological Systems Theory (PVEST) is an ecological model, which considers Bronfenbrenner’s (2005) *Ecological Systems Theory*, which was developed initially to examine the experiences of Black youth in the United States with consideration of context on development (Spencer et al., 2006). As a cyclical systems framework PVEST allows for an understanding of identity processes within context (Spencer et al., 2006). This framework permits a deeper examination of the

identity processes that are linked to context and factors that are culturally relevant for the lives of developing children and youth. PVEST attempts to integrate social, historical, and cultural context with normative developmental processes, examining developmental challenges faced by individuals of color. Thus, PVEST allows for the consideration of contextual and structural factors (e.g. structural and ideological legacies of American racism, current structural racism, economic inequities, and vulnerability related to violence and racial stereotyping). Therefore, PVEST incorporates the social and cultural elements that place emphasis on how an individual interprets context (Spencer et al., 2006).

Racial/Ethnic Coping and Agency Socialization Theory (RECAST)

The Racial/Ethnic Coping Appraisal and Socialization (RECAST) theory was developed with consideration of models of stress and coping (Lazarus & Folkman, 1983) as well as phenomenological-ecological (Phenomenological Variant of Ecological Systems Theory; Spencer, 2006). The premise of this model is that individuals can reappraise racial/ethnic conflicts with the acquisition of skills and strategies to improve racial dynamics exposure, awareness, self-efficacy, mindfulness and competence. Thus, reducing racial stress and resolving racial conflicts instead of ignoring such incidents and perpetuating racial dissonance. According to Stevenson et al. (2014), RECAST takes into account the following:

- 1) the racial threat of stressors differs by context, exposure and meaning-making of racial politics among individuals; 2) racial and academic stress influences teachers' racial coping self-efficacy and stress-reduction

competence; 3) the stress of learning how to teach is different from the racial stress of teaching students from African American and Latino backgrounds; 4) racial stress appraisal and reduction do not occur competently without repeated practice; and 5) racial socialization and practicing racial literacy skills can minimize the threat of these stressors.

RECAST further suggests that teacher humiliation, low self-efficacy, and lack of ability to adequately manage racial stress can lead to the development of negative affect and avoidant coping styles within the classroom, including 1) inappropriate use of excessive discipline, 2) avoiding seeking assistance, or 3) become emotionally disengaged in student relationships.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

For the current study, the following are independent variables: racial socialization, racial school climate, racial stress, and racial coping. The following are dependent variables: classroom management, ability to motivate students, and ability to motivate teachers.

Based on the literature reviewed, the following research questions were developed. These questions focus on the differences that may exist as a function of the ethnic difference in socialization practices that have been observed by families across multiple studies.

Question 1: Are there demographic differences among independent variables (racial socialization, racial school climate, racial stress, and racial coping) and

dependent variables (classroom management, ability to motivate students, and ability to motivate teachers)?

Hypothesis 1a: Ethnic minority educators will have experienced more racial socialization than White educators.

Hypothesis 1b: Ethnic minority educators will perceive their school climates as more racialized than White educators.

Hypothesis 1c: Ethnic minority educators will experience less racial stress and better abilities to cope with racial conflict than White educators.

Hypothesis 1d: Ethnic minority educators will have higher perceptions of classroom management and ability to motivate students than White educators.

Question 2: What are the interrelationships between independent variables (racial socialization, racial school climate, racial stress, and racial coping) and dependent variables (classroom management, ability to motivate students, and ability to motivate teachers)?

Hypothesis 2a: Higher perceptions of racial socialization and racial coping will have positive effects on the classroom management, ability to motivate students and teachers.

Hypothesis 2b: Higher perceptions of school climate and racial stress will have negative effects on classroom management, ability to motivate students and teachers.

Question 3: Does racial socialization help to explain educators' perceptions of school climate and racial coping abilities?

Hypothesis 3a: Educators who report more experiences of racial socialization will report higher perceptions of racial school climates.

Hypothesis 3b: Educators who report more experiences of racial socialization will report higher perceptions of racial coping abilities.

Question 4: Do distinct profiles or clusters using racial socialization and racial encounter stress reaction variables (trauma, threat, and competence) represent the diversity of educators in this sample?

Hypothesis 4: Distinct clusters will exist that yield a profile of educators with high racial socialization, low racial stress, and high racial coping abilities.

Question 5: How do educator racial encounter stress reaction clusters differ according to racial variables (racial school climate, racial stress and racial coping) and non-racial variables (teacher classroom management and ability to motivate students and teachers)?

Hypothesis 5a: Educators that report more racial socialization, low racial stress, and high coping will report higher perceptions of racial encounter problem solving abilities.

Hypothesis 5b: Educators that report less racial socialization, high racial stress, and low racial coping will have lower perceptions of classroom management and ability to motivate students.

CHAPTER 3

METHODS

The purpose of the present study is to analyze how racial socialization, perceptions of racial stress, racial school climate and racial coping abilities impact K-12 educators' perceptions of their competencies to effectively manage their classrooms and motivate their students and colleagues in diverse school settings.

Secondary data was used for the completion of this study. The present study includes data collected between 2011 and 2017. All sample data was collected online, utilizing a survey approach in order to investigate how faculty in predominately White independent schools perceived and addressed issues of race within the context of their respective schools. This study seeks to examine demographic differences in the frequency, importance, and level of stress among teachers' perceptions of school climate and racial microaggressions, as well as demographic differences in their ability to cope with racial stress.

Approval

Approval to conduct this research project was obtained from the University of Pennsylvania Institutional Review Board (IRB) in 2010.

Participants

The participants for this research study are faculty members who were employed at primary schools across the United States. Participants were recruited based on professional contacts and advertising. A total convenience sample of 215 participants answered questions beyond the demographic items in the beginning of the survey and are

included in the analyses. Initially, 311 faculty members, employed at primary schools, initiated participation in the study; however, 96 individuals failed to respond to items beyond demographic items.

In the sample, 61.5% are female, while 38.5% identified as male. Faculty positions at respective educational institutions of employment of the sample are as follows: Teachers (44.2%); Administrators (27.4%); Other (12.6%). Participant age are captured in bands. Age groups are designated as follows: 18-21 (2.3%); 22-30 (50.2%); 31-40 (24.7%); 41-50 (12.1%); 51-60 (7.0%); 61 and over (3.7%). For analyses, groups are collapsed. A two-group consolidation yielded the following: 18-30 (52.6%) and 31 and over (47.4%).

The racial composition of the faculty includes self-designations of White (64.7%), Black/African/Caribbean/African American (20.9%), Black/Latino (1.4%), Latino/Hispanic (1.9%), Biracial/Multiracial (6.0%), Asian American/Pacific Islander (3.3%), Middle Eastern (0.9%). For analyses, ethnic groups were collapsed. A two-group consolidation yielded the following: Minority (34.7%) and White (65.3%).

The educational levels of the sample are as follows: College [BA, BS, AB] (40.0%); Advanced Degree [MA, MS, MBA] (46.5%); Doctoral Degree [PhD, MD, JD] (12.6%). The type of educational institutions attended by the sample are as follows: Public University/ College (32.6%); Private University/ College (47.9%); Ivy League (9.3%); State Affiliated (6.5%); Historically Black College or University (1.9%); Women's College (0.9%); and Other (0.5%). For the analyses, type of educational institutions is collapsed. State Affiliated institutions are categorized as Public

Universities. Ivy League institutions are categorized as Private Universities. Due to HBCUs and Women's colleges potentially being either public or private, they are categorized as "Other". A three-group consolidation yielded the following: Private (57.5%), Public (39.3%), and Other (3.3%). The region of the country where faculty members attend their respective universities are as follows: Northeast (93.4%); Midwest (0.9%); Southeast (0.9%); Southwest (0.9%); Pacific Northwest (2.8%); and Other (0.9%). For analyses, regions of educational institutions are collapsed. A two-group consolidation yielded the following: Northeast (94.3%) and Other (5.7%).

The type of setting where faculty members teach are as follows: Urban (61.4%); Suburban (27.4%); Rural (9.3%); and Other (0.9%). The ethnic demographics of the respective schools where faculty worked was solicited. Participants were asked to provide the estimated percentage of students, teachers and administrators of each ethnicity. Respondents reported that approximately 37% of students at their respective schools are White, 73.5% of teachers are White, and 71% of administrators are White. Approximate 58.1% of participants reported having less than 50% or fewer White students at their schools, while 84.8% of participants reported having less than 75% or fewer White students. Approximate 14.9% of participants reported having less than 50% or fewer White teachers at their schools, while 50.5% of participants reported having less than 75% or fewer White teachers. Approximately 28.7% of participants reported having less than 50% or fewer White administrators at their schools, while 45.7% of participants reported having less than 75% or fewer White.

Procedures

The primary investigator's experience working and conducting research in primary school contexts guided the development of items for the inventory. Once piloted, items were discarded based on their relevance and clarity to the pilot audiences. Using a total of 60 items, the primary investigator identified themes that proved useful in constructing the questions for the focus groups and online survey.

Participants responded to the online survey using Survey Monkey software. A range of participants representing different geographic regions and states were captured. All participants were instructed to read the consent form. Subsequently, each participant indicated consent prior to beginning the process. Data was handled confidentially and aggregated electronically so that participants' names cannot be identified. Some participants, who attended workshops facilitated by the primary investigator, received an explanation about the purpose of the study and were provided with an overview. Responses to all questions are confidentially maintained by the primary investigator and no information is shared with any schools. Participant responses to survey items are identified with computer generated, numeric codes. No information maintained by the researcher identifies participants by name. School names or cities/counties were not solicited.

In order to investigate the racial appraisals and experiences of educators of diverse students in predominantly urban primary schools, a two-part study was conducted. Each of the measures were validated via the utilization of exploratory factor analyses, using the combined sample across several cohorts of data.

Measures

At the time of data collection, there were no published instruments designed to measure the racial climate for school faculty and staff. Instruments were modified by doctoral candidate Sherry Coleman (2011, Unpublished Dissertation). Three categories of measures were administered (faculty racial socialization history, faculty racial experiences in school, and school racial socialization). Participants responded to questions about school diversity philosophy, school climate, initiation of racial discussions, supportive interactions, stressfulness of experiences, personal history or racial interactions, professional and individual interactions, and sense of school membership.

Each participant was administered a series of questions that contained the online measures below. All measures were developed or modified by the principal investigator, Howard C. Stevenson, for the purposes of these data collection efforts. All measures for the current study are located in the APPENDIX.

School Racial Climate

Psychological Sense of School Racial Climate Scale (PSSRC). The *Psychological Sense of School Racial Climate Scale* is a 12-item scale that measures respondents' sense of belonging and belief that their schools adequately address racial issues. The original scale (Goodenow, 1993) was developed for students' sense of school belonging. It was modified to address racial issues for faculty in this study. The PSSRC, modified by Coleman and Stevenson (2013), measures the frequency schools have shown competence in – or the fear of – managing racial conflicts. The PSSRC also measures the degree to

which a school supports faculty, parents, students, and heads/principals' questioning of issues of race, class, privilege and inequalities. This measure includes items such as, "*Our school/organization deals with racial conflict in an open and fair manner*" and "*There are opportunities for professional development and programming in diversity competence*". The items are measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale (1: Never to 5: Very Often).

Supportive Racial Efficacy School Interactions Scale (SRESI). The *Supportive Racial Self-Efficacy School Interactions Scale* is a 17-item scale that measures the frequency faculty cope by avoiding or influencing racial conversations or diversity in the schools. This scale measures how often teachers use avoidance to cope with racial matters and perceive themselves as having an influence on the quality of racial conversations or diversity in the schools. Example of items include "*My fellow teachers talk about racial discrimination*" and "*I can have conversations about racial inequities in society with my students.*" The items are measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale (1: Never to 5: Very Often).

Racial Microaggressions Against Students of Color Scale (RMASC). The *Racial Microaggressions Against Students of Color Scale* consists of 6-items asking teachers to assess the school's perception of Black and Latino students as less smart, receiving more discipline, more difficult to engage, and more scary ($\alpha=.65$) than other students. Examples include "*Other teachers in my school are afraid of many of the Black and Latino students*" and "*My colleagues/classmates have expressed doubts about working*

with Black and Latino students.”. The items were measured on a 5-point Likert scale (1: Strongly Disagree to 5: Strongly Agree).

School Racial Stress

School Racial Interactions Stress Scale (SRIS). The *School Racial Interactions Stress Scale* (Coleman & Stevenson, 2013) measures the frequency that teachers experience or observe various professional racialized exchanges with students, parents, colleagues, and supervisors as stressful. Examples include “*Hearing negative stereotypes about people of other races is...*” and “*Raising concerns about racial conflict in your school with your faculty...*” ($\alpha=.92$). The items are measured on a 4-point Likert-type scale (1: Not Stressful to 4: Very Stressful).

School/Teacher Racial Encounter Stress Scale (STRESS). The School/Teacher Racial Encounter Stress Scale (STRESS) consists of 15-items modified from the Stress Appraisal Measure for Adolescents (Rowley, Roesch, Jurica, & Vaughn, 2005). The items were revised to include content that focused on teacher concerns about racial conflicts in student-teacher relationships and in classroom authority. Examples include “*I have the ability to overcome stress regarding teaching or leading about racial matters*” and “*Racial stress within my student relationships at school has a negative impact on me*”. The items are measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale (1: Not At All to 5: A Lot).

Racial Coping

Racial Encounter Problem Solving (REPS). The Racial Encounter Problem Solving Scale is a 9-item measure which measures faculty member ability to resolve issues concerning racial concerns and conflicts within the school context. This measure is

designed to elicit how well participants believe that they are able to effectively address racial issues with different groups (i.e., students, parents and colleagues) in school along racial lines. The stem of each of the items reads “*In your role at school now, how well do you feel you can successfully do the following...*”. Examples of items include “*...discuss racial conflicts at school with White colleagues?*” and “*...resolve concerns about racial issues at school with White parents group?*”. The items were measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale (1: Not Well At All to 5: Very Well Each Time).

Individual Racial Encounter Appraisal & Decision-Making Scale (IREAD). The IREAD Scale is a 21-item scale that measures an individual’s perceived skills to constructively cope with racially stressful encounters. The stem of all items was as follows “*While growing up, my family’s discussions about racial situations helped me:*”. Examples of items are: “*...stand up for others from my racial group when they are racially humiliated*”, “*...consider alternative ways to resolve a racially stressful interaction with another person*” and “*...take better control of racial conflicts so they don’t stress me out as much.*” ($\alpha = .98$). The items were measured on a 6-point Likert scale (1: Not True to 6: Very True).

Racial Socialization

Teacher Racial Encounter Educational Preparation Scale (TREEP). Teacher Racial Encounter Educational Preparation Scale is a 4-item scale that asks faculty how often their educational training prepared them to deal with racial issues. An example of an item is, “*My education has prepared me well to resolve racial conflicts in my current*

school/organization". The items are measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale (1: Never to 5: Very Often).

Childhood Racial Socialization Scale (FRS). The *Childhood Racial Socialization Scale* (Coleman & Stevenson, 2013) is an 11-item scale that asks respondents to rate how frequently their family had discussions with them about racial discrimination, pride, or negative stories about their racial group as well as how to deal with racial discrimination ($\alpha = .86$). Examples include "*Growing up, my family talked to me about racial discrimination,*" and "*Growing up, I was mistreated by members of my own race.*" The items were measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale (1: Never to 5: Very Often). This scale measured frequency with which faculty report their families of origin discussed positive and negative views about same-race and cross-race individuals and how to cope with racial conflicts in interactions with others.

Teacher/Educator Efficacy

Teacher Classroom Management Scale (TCM). The *Teacher Classroom Management Scale* is a 14-item scale modified from the *Self-Efficacy Subscale to Teacher Interpersonal Self-Efficacy Scale* (Brouwers & Tomic, 2001). It is designed to measure teachers' confidence in their abilities to (a) manage student classroom behavior, (b) engage collegial support, and (c) engage support from school principals ($\alpha = .92$). The original scale used three interpersonal self-efficacy activities, but for the purpose of this study, only a modified version of the Perceived Self-Efficacy in Classroom Management subscale (CMSE) was used. The items are measured on a 6-point Likert scale (1: Strongly Disagree to 6: Strongly Agree).

Teacher Ability to Motivate Students Scale (TAMS; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2010).

The *Teacher Ability to Motivate Students Scale* is a 4-item scale that measures teachers' ability to motivate students ($\alpha = .91$). It was modified from the Norwegian Teacher Self-Efficacy Motivation subscale. One example is "*I can get all students in class to work hard with their schoolwork.*" The items are measured on a 7-point Likert scale (1: Not Certain At All to 7: Absolutely Certain).

Teacher Ability to Motivate Teachers Scale (TAMT). The TAMT was modified from the TAMS (Skaalvik & Skaalvik 2010). This scale includes 4-items on teachers' ability to motivate other teachers to effectively work with students of color ($\alpha = .93$). One example includes "*I can motivate teachers who show low interest in teaching students of color.*" The items are measured on a 7-point Likert scale (1: Not Certain At All to 7: Absolutely Certain).

Across all waves of data collection, participants were asked to assess their level of stress at the moment they were engaged in responding to the questionnaire. Initial waves of the survey asked, "How stressful was it to answer these questions?". In previous piloting, faculty who scored high on feelings of initial stress relative to the final question were identified as having *Momentary Racial Survey Stress* (MRSS). Faculty who scored higher on the final question were identified as having *Consistent Racial Survey Stress* (CRSS). It was believed that MRSS teachers would manage the emotionally stressful nature of the questions by the end of the study in comparison to CRSS teachers, who were believed to perhaps remain overwhelmed as they responded to additional questions.

Subsequently, each teacher was given a *total racial survey stress score* by summing across the two questions?”

Later waves of data collection were asked “On a scale from 1-10 how stressed are you now? Imagine: One (1) is an antihill level of stress (not stressed) and five (5) is the stress of mountain climbing (somewhat stressed) (10) is the stress of facing a tsunami (very stressed)”. Due to the alteration in the formatting of the question, the results of this data were not used for the purposes of this study given the concern that the results might be altered due to the change in wording and formatting.

Analyses

As noted, data collection for the present study took place across a number of cohorts of faculty members from 2011 to 2017. Data was housed in ten (10) SPSS databases after each was migrated from its respective Survey Monkey files. In preparation for analyses, the data was cleaned and merged into one datafile in SPSS.

The descriptive statistics (mean, median, standard deviation) for each variable were subsequently examined to identify potential errors in the data set. Univariate box plots were examined for possible outliers. Histograms and normal probability plots were examined to assess the normality of the distributions for each variable. The graphs were used to determine if the assumption of normality in the data distribution was violated given that subsequent analyses assume normally distributed variables. Scatter plots were reviewed to observe the strength and direction of relationships between dependent variables and primary independent variables.

Exploratory factor analyses were used to test the validity of all measures used in this current study. Varimax rotation and squared multiple correlations were used to determine communality estimates of the measures within the inventory of scales. Descriptive analyses, skewness, kurtosis, range, and relevance to the constructs were observed. Subsequently, Cattell's scree test (Cattell, 1966) was utilized. Each factor retained at least 2 items with loadings equal to or greater than .37. This standard is robust enough of a cutoff to isolate items that have low correlations relative to the total subscale. Items that loaded high on 2 scales were excluded. Items that comprised factors were also reviewed for internal consistency and reviewed to ensure that they made sense, intuitively and conceptually, based on the theoretical foundations of the RECAST theory. Items that did not make sense conceptually were dropped from the analysis. Once factors were derived from the combined measures of perceptions of climate and racial conflicts in schools, those factors were utilized to answer the current research questions in this study. Factors are used to determine correlational relationships, entered into regression models, and used in cluster analyses in an effort to answer the research questions.

Analyses of variance (ANOVA) tests of participants' responses were used to determine if group differences exist across perceptions of: climate, experiences of stress, racial socialization, and performance efficacy variables. The ANOVAs compared the mean reported responses to all variables with the demographic variables. This statistical test was employed to determine if there were demographic characteristics that generated a difference in response among faculty members.

Pearson product-moment correlations analyses were conducted to estimate the strength and direction of the linear relationships between the variables, with particular interest in the dependent variables: classroom management, ability to motivate students, ability to motivate teachers. After correlational relationships were found, in an effort to account for multicollinearity, regression equation modeling analyses were conducted.

Several linear regression analyses were run. The first set of linear regressions variables were used to determine the unique contributions of demographic variables, school racial stress variables, racial socialization on racial coping outcomes. Subsequently, a second set of linear regression analyses were used to determine the unique contributions of demographic variables, school racial stress variables, racial socialization, and racial coping on classroom management, ability to motivate students, and ability to motivate teachers.

Cluster analysis test for differences in groups of individuals who share a set of reactions to specific measures. Subsequently, a type of profile could be determined for types of faculty members that perceived and responded to stress in a certain manner. This procedure facilitates the categorization of groups of participants which allows for the understanding of how each participant functions simultaneously on multiple dimensions of interest (Aldenderfer & Blashfield, 1984). To address the research questions, a K-means cluster analytic procedure was used.

Validity

Steps were taken to consider threats to reliability and validity of the survey instruments. Factor analyses assessed the reliability of the scales used in this study. The internal consistencies of the instruments were within an acceptable range. Piloting procedures showed moderate and high reliability of various forms of all instruments used. For this study, all Chronbach's alpha reliabilities showed high values in order to ensure reliability among measures.

Low response completion rates threatened data reliability, indicating response bias in the sample. Given the limitations of the scope for the present study, the characteristics of the characteristics of the individuals that did not complete the entire survey or portions of the survey were not analyzed. Therefore, there may be threats to the generalizability of the current results. Generally, web-based surveys yield lower response rates than questionnaires (Schonlau, Fricker, & Elliott, 2002). Additionally, males and African Americans commonly respond to surveys at lower rates than females and Whites (Underwood, Kim, & Matier, 2000).

No incentives were offered for the completion of this surveys during any of the waves of data collection.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to determine what differences exist in regard to educator perceptions of racial climate, racial socialization, racial stress, racialized educational preparation and racial coping abilities and their relationship to classroom management, ability to motivate students, and ability to motivate classroom teachers. Descriptive data will be presented, followed by correlational analyses between independent variables and dependent variables, multiple regression analyses, and cluster analyses to answer the aforementioned questions:

Question 1: Are there demographic differences among independent variables (racial socialization, racial school climate, racial stress, and racial coping) and dependent variables (classroom management, ability to motivate students, and ability to motivate teachers)?

Hypothesis 1a: Ethnic minority educators will have experienced more racial socialization than White educators.

Hypothesis 1b: Ethnic minority educators will perceive their school climates as more racialized than White educators.

Hypothesis 1c: Ethnic minority educators will experience less racial stress and better abilities to cope with racial conflict than White educators.

Hypothesis 1d: Ethnic minority educators will have higher perceptions of classroom management and ability to motivate students than White educators.

Question 2: What are the interrelationships between independent variables (racial socialization, racial school climate, racial stress, and racial coping) and dependent variables (classroom management, ability to motivate students, and ability to motivate teachers)?

Hypothesis 2a: Higher perceptions of racial socialization and racial coping will have positive effects on the classroom management, ability to motivate students and teachers.

Hypothesis 2b: Higher perceptions of racially avoidant school climate and racial stress will have negative effects on classroom management, ability to motivate students and teachers.

Question 3: Does racial socialization help to explain educators' perceptions of school climate and racial coping abilities?

Hypothesis 3a: Educators who report more experiences of racial socialization will report higher perceptions of racial school climates.

Hypothesis 3b: Educators who report more experiences of racial socialization will report higher perceptions of racial coping abilities.

Question 4: Do distinct profiles or clusters using racial socialization and racial encounter stress reaction variables (trauma, threat, and competence) represent the diversity of educators in this sample?

Hypothesis 4: Distinct clusters will exist that yield a profile of educators with high racial socialization, low racial stress, and high racial coping abilities.

Question 5: How do educator racial encounter stress reaction clusters differ according to racial variables (racial school climate, racial stress and racial coping) and non-racial variables (teacher classroom management and ability to motivate students and teachers)?

Hypothesis 5a: Educators that report more racial socialization, low racial stress, and high coping will report higher perceptions of racial encounter problem solving abilities.

Hypothesis 5b: Educators that report less racial socialization, high racial stress, and low racial coping will have lower perceptions of classroom management and ability to motivate students.

Missing Data

An inspection of the data revealed that there were no consistent patterns for non-response to measures. Open-ended questions provided insight regarding why some individuals may not have responded to certain items. Challenges included reports of the survey being too long and perceived confusion over whether certain questions pertained to them. One example is that some White respondents may have been reticent to respond to questions such as “*Being a person of color is difficult at my school.*”

To avoid a substantial reduction in sample size, cases with missing values were not eliminated. To account for missing data, the mean-substitution method was utilized

during regression analysis in order to ensure that the goodness-of-fit tests would have consistently. This was done in an effort to reduce the possibility that sample size determined the goodness-of-fit.

In order to identify associations between demographic variables (age, gender, ethnicity, education level, job position, and school setting) and the main variables of interest (racial socialization, racial school climate, racial stress, racial coping, as well as classroom management, ability to motivate students, and ability to motivate colleagues), a series of preliminary analyses were conducted. For the purpose of the current study, collectively, the concepts of classroom management, ability to motivate students, and an ability to motivate teachers constitute the notion of teacher efficacy.

Factor Analyses

Exploratory factor analyses were conducted in an effort to assess the strength of the constructs used across sample populations to measure perceptions of – and interactions with – school climate. Two- to five-factor models were tested. The three-factor model was determined to be the best. The three factors were labeled *Racially Avoidant Climate* ($\alpha = .86$), *Racial Conversation* ($\alpha = .67$), *Racial Assertiveness* ($\alpha = .84$). *Racially Avoidant Climate* was correlated with *Racial Conversation* ($r = .10$). *Racial Assertiveness* ($r = .02$). *Racial Conversation* and *Racial Assertiveness* were moderately correlated ($r = .52$; $p < .01$).

Exploratory factor analyses were also conducted in an effort to assess the strength of the *School/Teacher Racial Encounter Stress Scale* used to measure perceptions of racial stress as Two- to five-factor models were tested. The three-factor model was

determined to be the best. The three factors were labeled *Competence* ($\alpha = .83$), *Threat* ($\alpha = .76$), and *Trauma* ($\alpha = .76$). *Competence* and *Threat* were correlated ($r = -.11$). *Competence* and *Trauma* were correlated ($r = .16$). *Threat* and *Trauma* were moderately correlated at ($r = .48; p < .01$).

In addition, exploratory factor analyses were conducted in an effort to assess the strength of the constructs used to measure racial socialization of faculty members. Two- to five-factor models were tested. The two-factor model was determined to be the best. The two factors were labeled *Protective Racial Socialization* ($\alpha = .84$) and *Negative Racial Socialization* ($\alpha = .67$). *Positive Racial Socialization* and *Negative Racial Socialization* were moderately correlated ($r = .42; p < .01$).

All factor analyses tables (Tables 1, 2, and 3) are located in APPENDIX B.

Demographic Analyses

Independent t-tests and analyses of variance (ANOVA) were conducted in order to determine if participants' responses were statistically different based on age, ethnicity, job position, school setting on perceptions of climate, experiences of stress, racial socialization, and performance efficacy variables. Both types of analyses compared the mean reported responses to all variables to the demographic variables (see Table 4). This statistical test was employed to determine if there were demographic characteristics that generated a difference in response among faculty members.

Question 1 takes into consideration the participants' perceptions of socialization practices by families and other socializing agents (e.g., formal education) in an effort to provide individuals (e.g., educators) with coping skills to deal with racial conflict. In

order to answer this question, analyses of variance were conducted to examine demographic differences. As previously stated, the research question was:

Are there demographic differences among independent variables (racial socialization, racial school climate, racial stress, and racial coping) and dependent variables (classroom management, ability to motivate students, and ability to motivate teachers)?

Mean Differences by Ethnicity

Hypothesis 1a (Ethnic minority educators will have experienced more racial socialization than White educators) was supported. There was a statistically significant difference of ethnic group membership on protective racial socialization $t(154) = 11.13, p = .000$. Ethnic minority teachers ($M = 19.12, SD = 5.00, N = 59$) responded higher on protective racial socialization during childhood than White teachers ($M = 11.40, SD = 3.63, N = 97$). This finding suggests minority educators are more likely to experience racial socialization during childhood that encourages them to address issues of race.

Also, there was a statistically significant difference of ethnic group membership on negative racial socialization $t(158) = 5.95, p = .000$. Ethnic minority teachers ($M = 11.08, SD = 2.80, N = 63$) responded higher on negative racial socialization during childhood than White teachers ($M = 8.38, SD = 2.80, N = 97$). This finding suggests minority educators are more likely to have had negative racial socializing experiences than their White counterparts.

Lastly, there was a statistically significant difference between ethnic group membership on educational preparation regarding issues of racial conflict $t(172) = 3.28, p$

= .001). Ethnic minority teachers ($M = 10.91$, $SD = 3.87$, $N = 67$) responded higher on educational preparation regarding issues of race than White teachers ($M = 9.08$, $SD = 3.40$, $N = 107$). This finding suggests minority educators are more likely to receive training concerning how to deal with racial conflicts at work than White educators.

Hypothesis 1b (Ethnic minority educators will perceive their school climates as more racialized than White educators.) was supported. There was a statistically significant difference between ethnicities on perceptions that educators have observed racial conflict in their school climates $t(156) = 5.29$, $p = .000$). Ethnic minority educators ($M = 37.02$, $SD = 8.52$, $N = 59$) responded higher in perceptions of school climate as racially challenging than White educators ($M = 29.88$, $SD = 8.00$, $N = 99$). This finding suggests that educators that are members of ethnic minority groups perceive more racial conflict in their school environments than their White counterparts.

In addition, there was a statistically significant difference of ethnic group membership on observations of discrimination against students of color $t(140) = 4.85$, $p = .000$). Ethnic minority teachers ($M = 11.63$, $SD = 3.73$, $N = 57$) responded higher on perceptions of discrimination against students of color than White teachers ($M = 8.81$, $SD = 3.15$, $N = 85$). This finding suggests ethnic minority educators are more likely to perceive that students of color are being discriminated against in school.

Hypothesis 1c (Ethnic minority educators will experience less racial stress and better abilities to cope with racial conflict than White educators.) was supported. There was a statistically significant difference between school educators on ethnic group membership on racial coping abilities $t(111) = 4.36$, $p = .000$). Ethnic minority teachers

($M = 84.26$, $SD = 27.27$, $N = 47$) responded higher on perceived racial coping ability than White teachers ($M = 61.76$, $SD = 26.85$, $N = 66$). This finding suggests ethnic minority educators are more likely to view themselves as better capable of coping with racial incidents than White educators.

Hypothesis 1d (Ethnic minority educators will have higher perceptions of classroom management and ability to motivate students than White educators.) was not supported. No statistically significant differences were found between Minority educators and White educators concerning classroom management.

Collectively, ethnic minority educators were significantly more likely to experience more racial socialization (during childhood and academic studies), perceive their schools as racially avoidant and at fault for carrying out microaggressions against students of color. Additionally, they were higher on abilities to cope with racial stress.

Mean Differences by Gender

An independent t-test was conducted to compare the effects of gender on the perception of school climate as spaces which educators perceive to be racially avoidant. There was a significant effect of gender categorization perceptions of racial school climate $t(155) = 2.16$, $p = .032$). Female educators ($M = 33.68$, $SD = 8.84$, $N = 100$) responded higher in perceptions of school climate as engaging in more racial avoidance comparison to their male counterparts ($M = 30.53$, $SD = 8.70$, $N = 57$). This finding suggests that female faculty members view their school climate as more racially avoidant than male faculty members.

Table 4: Mean Differences of Demographic Variables

	AGE	ETHNICITY	POSITION	DEGREE
Education Prep	-30 > 31+	Minority > White	-	-
Pro Socialization	-	Minority > White	-	-
Neg Socialization	-	Minority > White	Teacher > Admin	-
Racial Climate	-30 < 31+	Minority > White	Teacher > Admin	-
Racial Assertiveness	-	-	Teacher < Admin	BA < DR
Racial Conversation	-	-	-	-
SOC Microaggressions	-	Minority > White	Teacher > Admin	-
Racial Competence	-	-	-	-
Racial Threat	-30 > 31+	-	Teacher > Admin	BA > MS
Racial Trauma	-30 < 31+	-	Teacher > Admin	BA > MS
School Racial Stress	-30 > 31+	-	-	BA > MS DR
Racial Coping	-	Minority > White	-	BA < DR
Racial Problem Solve	-30 > 31+	-	Teacher < Admin	-
Classroom Management	-30 > 31+	-	Teacher < Admin	BA < MS
Motivate Students	-30 < 31+	-	-	-
Motivate Teachers	-30 < 31 ^t	-	Teacher < Admin	BA < DR

Note: Approaching significance, ^t = .057

Mean Differences by Age

There were several statistically significant findings as a function of educator age. As indicated in the methods section, participants ages were collapsed into two age groups (Under 30 and Over 31) to allow for an analysis of groups with adequate power.

There was a statistically significant difference between age categories on the perception of school climate as spaces in which faculty/educators have observed overt or covert racial conflicts $t(165) = -2.90, p = .004$. Educators 31 years and older ($M = 33.59, SD = 7.99, N = 86$) responded higher in perceptions of school climate as having frequent racial conflicts in comparison to educators 30 and younger ($M = 30.14, SD = 7.39, N = 81$).

There was a statistically significant difference between age on racial encounter educational preparation categories $t(173) = 2.09, p = .038$. Educators 30 and younger (M

= 10.41, $SD = 3.52$, $N = 88$) responded higher in experiences of educational preparation to deal with issues of racial conflict in schools than educators 31 and older ($M = 9.24$, $SD = 3.86$, $N = 87$).

There was a statistically significant difference between age on the perception of racial school conflict as threatening $t(148) = 3.87$, $p = .000$). Educators 30 and younger ($M = 8.07$, $SD = 3.15$, $N = 74$) responded higher on perceptions of racial threat than educators 31 and older ($M = 6.24$, $SD = 2.63$, $N = 76$). This finding suggests that younger educators experience racial conflict as more threatening than older educators.

There was a statistically significant difference between age on the perception of classroom management $t(109) = -5.28$, $p = .000$). Educators 30 and younger ($M = 56.15$, $SD = 9.81$, $N = 67$) responded higher on perceptions of their classroom management ability than educators 31 and older ($M = 65.43$, $SD = 7.74$, $N = 44$). This finding suggests that younger educators believed that they are better capable of managing their classrooms than older educators.

There was a statistically significant difference between age on the perception of racial school conflict as causing trauma $t(142) = 2.33$, $p = .021$). Educators 31 and older ($M = 12.64$, $SD = 4.55$, $N = 72$) responded higher on perceptions of racial trauma than educators 30 and younger ($M = 14.28$, $SD = 3.88$, $N = 72$). This finding suggests that older educators believe that racial encounters are more traumatic than younger educators.

There was a statistically significant difference between age on perceived ability to competently deal with racial encounters $t(139) = -2.25$, $p = .026$). Educators 31 and older ($M = 32.02$, $SD = 8.15$, $N = 68$) responded higher on racial encounter problem solving

than educators 30 and younger ($M = 29.21$, $SD = 6.65$, $N = 73$). This finding suggests that older educators are better equipped to reach appropriate resolutions when dealing with racial encounters.

There was a statistically significant difference between age on the ability to motivate students $t(145) = -3.45$, $p = .001$). Educators 31 and older ($M = 20.30$, $SD = 4.29$, $N = 73$) responded higher on perceived ability to motivate students than educators 30 and younger ($M = 17.62$, $SD = 5.10$, $N = 74$). This finding suggests that older educators feel better capable of motivating students than younger educators.

There was a statistically significant difference between ethnicity of age on the amount of racial stress experienced $t(128) = 2.98$, $p = .003$). Educators who are 30 and younger ($M = 55.35$, $SD = 10.81$, $N = 65$) responded higher on the amount of school racial stress experienced than educators 31 and older ($M = 49.55$, $SD = 11.34$, $N = 65$). This result suggests that young educators experience more instances of racial stress than older educators.

There was a difference that approached statistically significance between age on the ability to motivate teachers $t(142) = -1.95$, $p = .053$). Educators 31 and older ($M = 17.12$, $SD = 5.07$, $N = 73$) responded higher on perceived ability to motivate teachers than educators 30 and younger ($M = 15.27$, $SD = 6.30$, $N = 71$). This finding suggests that older faculty members believe that they are better capable of motivating teachers than their younger counterparts.

Collectively, younger educators (30 years and below) were more likely to report more educational preparation dealing with racial encounters; however, they were more

likely to report experiencing racial encounters as threatening and report higher levels of racial stress. Additionally, younger educators also reported higher perceptions of racial encounter problem solving and classroom management abilities. Older educators (31 years and above) reported higher perceptions of their schools as racially avoidant climates. Older teacher also reported higher perceptions of abilities to motivate both students and colleagues.

Mean Differences by School Setting

There was a statistically significant difference effects of school setting on perceptions that faculty members actively engage in racial conversations as determined by one-way ANOVA ($F(3,167) = 2.653, p = .050$). Faculty in urban schools ($M = 9.16, SD = 2.40, N = 108$) responded higher in perceptions that initiating racial conversation is welcomed than faculty in suburban schools ($M = 8.04, SD = 2.64, N = 45$). There was no statistical difference between educators who worked in rural areas compared to those in urban and suburban areas. This finding suggests that educators who teach in urban areas are more likely to be in schools that engage in racial conversations compared to schools in suburban areas.

Mean Differences by Job Position

There was a statistically significant difference between job position on perceptions that educators observed their school climate as racially avoidant determined by one-way ANOVA ($F(1,139) = 14.156, p = .000$). Classroom teachers ($M = 35.28, SD = 8.84, N = 74$) responded higher in perceptions of school climate as racially challenging compared to administrators ($M = 29.14, SD = 8.14, N = 42$).

There was a statistically significant difference effects of job position on likelihood of assertiveness as determined by one-way ANOVA ($F(1,148) = 5.030, p = .026$).

Administrators ($M = 31.78, SD = 6.77, N = 49$) responded higher on ability to be assertive than classroom teachers ($M = 30.95, SD = 7.98, N = 76$). This finding suggests that administrators are more likely to be assertive than teachers.

There was a statistically significant difference the effects of job position on experiences of racial threat as determined by one-way ANOVA ($F(1,133) = 8.261, p = .005$). Classroom teachers ($M = 7.93, SD = 3.17, N = 70$) responded higher on perceptions of racial threat than Administrators ($M = 6.32, SD = 3.09, N = 44$). This finding suggests that educators that are in the classroom are more likely to perceive racial conflicts as potentially threatening to their lives.

There was a statistically significant difference of the effects of job position on experiences of trauma as determined by one-way ANOVA ($F(1,129) = 4.797, p = .030$). Classroom teachers ($M = 14.32, SD = 4.17, N = 69$) responded higher on perceptions of racial trauma than administrators ($M = 12.14, SD = 4.68, N = 42$). This finding suggests that educators who are in the classroom are more likely to perceive racial conflicts as potentially traumatic.

There was a statistically significant difference of job position on negative racial socialization experiences as determined by one-way ANOVA ($F(1,139) = 8.372, p = .004$). Classroom teachers ($M = 10.24, SD = 3.31, N = 71$) responded higher on negative racial socialization during childhood than administrators ($M = 8.96, SD = 2.80, N = 49$).

This finding suggests that classroom teachers are more likely to have received negative racial socialization messaging as children.

There was a statistically significant difference effects of job position on classroom management as determined by one-way ANOVA ($F(1,91) = 6.096, p = .015$).

Administrators ($M = 63.97, SD = 7.52, N = 30$) responded higher on perceptions of their classroom management than classroom teachers ($M = 59.00, SD = 10.40, N = 61$). This finding suggests administrators are better capable of managing classrooms than teachers.

There was a statistically significant difference the effects of job position on racial encounter problem solving as determined by one-way ANOVA ($F(2,122) = 7.257, p = .008$). Administrators ($M = 31.28, SD = 8.28, N = 39$) responded higher on racial encounter problem solving than classroom teachers ($M = 28.64, SD = 7.66, N = 66$). This finding suggests that administrators perceive themselves to be better capable of dealing with racial conflicts than classroom teachers.

There was a statistically significant difference the effects of age on ability to motivate teachers as determined by one-way ANOVA ($F(1,126) = 8.512, p = .004$). Administrators ($M = 17.60, SD = 5.70, N = 45$) responded higher on ability to motivate teachers than classroom teachers ($M = 14.84, SD = 5.87, N = 64$).

There was a statistically significant difference of effects of job position on observations of discrimination against students of color as determined by one-way ANOVA ($F(1,123) = 4.980, p = .027$). Classroom teachers ($M = 10.82, SD = 3.85, N = 61$) responded higher on perception of discrimination against students of color than

administrators ($M = 9.21$, $SD = 3.57$, $N = 47$). This finding suggests classroom teachers are more likely to perceive that students of color are being discriminated against.

Collectively, classroom teachers were more likely to perceive of their schools as being racially avoidant and to report higher incidents of racial microaggressions against students of color. Additionally, they were more likely to report higher perceptions of potential threat and trauma as a function of racial encounters. Additionally, classroom teachers were less likely to perceive of themselves as being able to be assertive around issues of race as well as less capable of problem solving when encountering racial conflict.

Mean Differences by Level of Education

There was a statistically significant difference of education level on assertiveness around racial issues as determined by one-way ANOVA ($F(2,162) = 3.079$, $p = .049$). Tukey's post hoc indicated that educators with doctorate degrees ($M = 35.21$, $SD = 8.13$, $N = 24$) responded higher on ability to be assertive than those with Bachelor degrees ($M = 30.56$, $SD = 8.00$, $N = 58$). Taken together, these results suggest that educators with doctorates are more comfortable speaking up during racial conflicts.

There was a statistically significant difference of education level on perceptions of racial threat as determined by one-way ANOVA ($F(2,148) = 4.839$, $p = .009$). Tukey's post hoc indicated that educators with Bachelor degrees ($M = 8.14$, $SD = 3.25$, $N = 52$) responded higher on perceptions of perceptions of racial threat than educators with Master's degrees ($M = 6.49$, $SD = 2.50$, $N = 81$). Taken together, these results suggest

that educators with bachelor's perceive racial conflict as more threatening to their lives. However, educators with doctorates perceived no significant threat.

There was a statistically significant difference of effects of education level on perceptions of racial trauma as determined by one-way ANOVA ($F(2,143) = 5.096, p = .007$). Tukey's post hoc indicated that educators with Bachelor ($M = 14.92, SD = 3.77, N = 51$) degrees responded higher on experience of racial trauma than educators with Master's degrees ($M = 12.53, SD = 4.28, N = 77$). There was no significant difference between educators with doctorates compared to educators with Bachelor's or Master's degrees. Taken together, these findings suggest that educators with only bachelor's degrees experience more racial trauma than those with additional education.

There was a statistically significant difference of effects of education level on school racial stress as determined by one-way ANOVA ($F(2,128) = 3.397, p = .037$). Tukey's post hoc indicated that educators with Bachelor degree ($M = 55.85, SD = 11.26, N = 48$) responded higher on their experience of school racial stress than those with a doctorate or Master's degree ($M = 50.38, SD = 11.48, N = 64$). Taken together, these findings suggest that educators with only bachelor's degrees experience more racial trauma than those with additional education.

There was a statistically significant difference of effects of education level on racial coping as determined by one-way ANOVA ($F(2,110) = 3.594, p = .031$). Tukey's post hoc indicated that educators with Doctorate degrees ($M = 89.20, SD = 26.10, N = 15$) responded higher on perception of their racial coping than teachers than educators with

only Bachelor degrees ($M = 65.67$, $SD = 25.39$, $N = 36$). These findings suggest that those with additional years of education are better capable of coping with racial conflict.

There was a statistically significant difference of effects of education level on classroom management as determined by one-way ANOVA ($F(1,109) = 13.913$, $p = .000$). Educators with Master's ($M = 62.53$, $SD = 8.79$, $N = 64$) responded higher on perceptions of their classroom management ability than educators with Bachelor degrees ($M = 55.49$, $SD = 11.09$, $N = 47$). Educators with doctorate degrees did not respond to questions measuring classroom management. This finding suggests that individuals with additional education are more confident in their ability to manage their classrooms.

There was a statistically significant difference of effects of education level on the ability to motivate teachers as determined by one-way ANOVA ($F(2,141) = 4.519$, $p = .013$). Tukey's post hoc indicated that educators with doctorate degrees ($M = 19.06$, $SD = 3.78$, $N = 17$) responded higher on ability to motivate teachers than educators with Bachelor degrees ($M = 14.57$, $SD = 6.08$, $N = 49$). Taken together, these results suggest that educators with doctorate degrees are better capable of motivating teachers than educators that only have a bachelor's degree. However, it should be noted that individuals with a Master's degree do not appear to have a more significant perception of their abilities to motivate teachers than teacher with bachelor degrees.

Collectively, educators who only obtained bachelor degrees reported high levels of perceptions of threat, trauma, and school racial stress. Conversely, educators with more advanced degrees (Master's or Doctorates) perceived themselves as more assertive, better capable of coping with racial encounters, and more capable of managing

classrooms and motivating teachers. It is important to consider these findings with the understanding that the sample population also consists of administrators, who are more likely to have advanced degrees.

Correlational Analyses

Question 2 takes into consideration the relationships of all of the research constructs (perceptions of racial school climate, racial socialization practices, experiences of racial stress, racial coping, and teacher efficacy). As previously stated, the research question was:

What are the interrelationships between independent variables (racial socialization, racial school climate, racial stress, and racial coping) and dependent variables (classroom management, ability to motivate students, and ability to motivate teachers)?

Hypothesis 2a (Higher levels of racial socialization and racial coping will have positive effects on the classroom management, ability to motivate students and teachers.) was partially supported. Racial coping, in the form of racial encounter problem solving, was positively correlated with classroom management ($r = .36; p < .01$), ability to motivate students ($r = .35; p < .01$), and ability to motivate teachers ($r = .46; p < .01$). In addition, educational preparation around issues of racial encounters was significantly related to higher perceptions of abilities to motivate students ($r = .19; p < .05$) and teachers ($r = .24; p < .01$).

Hypothesis 2b (Higher perceptions of racially avoidant school climate and racial stress will have negative effects on classroom management, ability to motivate students

and teachers.) was not supported by correlational analyses (see Table 5). However, lower reported levels of perceived racial threat were significantly correlated with higher perceptions of classroom management abilities ($r = -.30; p < .01$).

Question 3 was as follows: Does racial socialization help to explain educators' perceptions of school climate? Hypothesis 3a (Educators who report more experiences of racial socialization will report higher levels of racial coping abilities.) was supported. Educators reported higher perceptions of their abilities to cope with racial matters as a result of both racial encounter educational preparation ($r = .30; p < .01$) and protective racial socialization ($r = .67; p < .01$).

Table 5

*Teacher School Racial Stress Appraisal, Racial Socialization, Perception of Racial Competence and Teacher Self-Efficacy Variables:
Correlations and Descriptive Statistics (N=215)*

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. Racial Avoid Clim.	-														
2. Assertiveness	.02	-													
3. Racial Convers.	.10	.52**	-												
4. SOC Microaggrs.	.52**	-.08	-.11	-											
5. Racial Competnce	-.01	.28*	.29**	-.21*	-										
6. Racial Threat	.23**	-.02	.05	.07	-.10	-									
7. Racial Trauma	.20*	.04	.24**	.10	.15	.48**	-								
8. Sch. Racial Stress	.48**	-.01	.06	.39**	-.00	.31	.42**	-							
9. Educational Prep	.19*	.20*	.32**	.19*	.21*	.07	.05	.02	-						
10. Pro. Socialization	.40**	.06	.05	.31**	.00	.04	.02	.10	.28**	-					
11. Neg. Socialization	.36**	.00	.11	.36**	.00	.07	.16	.10	.18*	.42**	-				
12. Racial Coping	.11	.14	-.02	.09	.06	-.20*	-.02	-.11	.30**	.67**	.14	-			
13. Problem Solving	-.15	.41**	.25**	-.19*	.51**	-.05	.16	-.25*	.28**	.06	-.07	.30**	-		
14. Classroom Mgmt.	.08	.37**	.15	-.04	.38**	-.30**	-.10	-.13	.17	.07	-.02	.02	.36**	-	
15. Motivate Students	.14	.24**	.19*	.16	.43**	.07	.04	-.01	.19*	.17*	.12	.10	.35**	.60**	-
16. Motivate Teachers	-.06	.31**	.30**	-.18*	.34**	-.01	-.05	-.12	.24**	.04	-.07	.18	.46**	.46*	.61**

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$ (2-tailed).

Regression Analyses

Hierarchical linear regression analyses were conducted in order to answer research question 3 and test the moderating effects of racial socialization on stress and coping. Question 3 is as follows:

Does racial socialization help to explain educators' perceptions of school climate and racial coping abilities?

Independent variables were entered into the regression model with consideration of Stevenson's (2013) RECAST theory in order to assess the effects on perceptions of school racial climate measures as well as racial coping variables. Demographic variables were entered into the step 1; racial stress variables were entered into step 2; finally, racial socialization variables were entered into step 3.

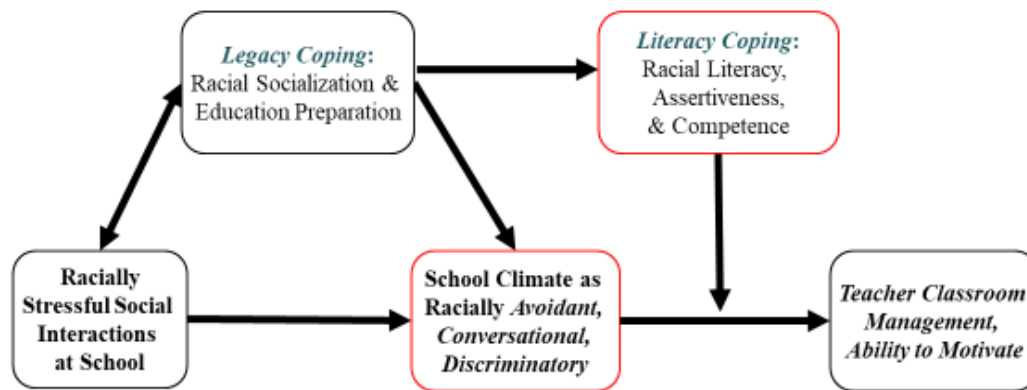
To address the influence of *legacy racial coping* on intermediate outcomes of school racial climate perceptions and racial encounter coping self-efficacy, a 3-step hierarchical regression model was used. To address the influence of *literacy racial coping* on long-term educator effectiveness outcomes, a 4-step hierarchical regression model was used.

Legacy Racial Coping Influence on School Racial Climate and Educator Racial Coping

To answer the question of whether racial socialization contributes significantly to educators' perceptions of school racial climate and racial encounter coping, one regression model was run (Figure 1). The school racial climate factors (racial avoidance, racial conversation, and microaggressions against students of color) and racial coping

factors (racial encounter competence, racial coping, and racial problem-solving skills), were regressed on demographic, school racial stress variables, and racial socialization variables in a three-step hierarchical multiple regression (See Tables 6 - 12).

Figure 1: Impact of Racial Socialization and Racial Stress on Racial Climate and Coping



School Racial Climate of Avoidance, Conversation, Microaggressions

Analyses demonstrated that being a Minority educator (step 1), perceiving greater school racial stress and racial encounter threat reactions (step 2), as well as both protective and negative racial socialization (step 3) were predictive of perceiving the school climate as racially avoidant (Table 6). With regard to racial conversation, only racial encounter trauma at step 2, and receiving educational preparation concerning racial matters were positively related to perceiving a greater amount of school racial conversations (Table 7). Additionally, being a Minority educator (step 1), perceiving more school racial stress (step 2), and experiencing negative racial socialization (step 3) were predictive of perceiving the school climate as discriminatory toward students of color (Table 8).

Classroom Racial Coping Help-Seeking, Competence, and Problem-Solving

When predicting racial competence or help-seeking during classroom racial encounters, educators were less likely to be stressed by racial rejection experiences at school, less likely to be racially threatened and more likely to be distressed by classroom racial encounters and report greater racial educational preparation (Table 9). Being a Minority educator (step 1), having lower levels of perceived school racial stress, lower perceptions of racial encounter threat, greater protective and racial socialization (fewer negative racial socialization experiences and more racial education preparation) were predictive of educators reporting greater racial coping skills (Table 10). Thus, Hypothesis 3b (Educators who report more experiences of racial socialization will report higher perceptions of racial coping abilities) was further supported.

Table 6

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Racial Avoidant Climate (N = 215)

Variables	Step 1			Step 2			Step 3		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Age	-0.54	.84	-.04**	0.36	.80	.03	0.49	.78	.04
Education Level	-0.49	.63	-.52	-0.37	.58	-.04	-0.33	.56	-.04
Ethnic Group	-3.67	.74	-.28**	-3.67	.69	-.28**	-1.83	.77	-.14*
Gender	0.82	.76	-.06**	-0.70	.72	-.05	-0.88	.70	-.07
School Racial Stress				0.27	.05	.32**	0.26	.05	.30**
Racial Threat				0.37	.18	.13*	0.39	.17	.13*
Racial Trauma				0.01	.13	.00	-0.01	.13	-.01
Pro Socialization							0.27	.10	.18**
Neg Socialization							0.34	.16	.12*
Education Prep							0.17	.12	.18
R^2	.08			.21			.26		
F for change in R^2	7.82**			16.92**			8.12**		

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 7

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Conversation (N = 215)

Variables	Step 1			Step 2			Step 3		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Age	-0.02	.25	-.01	0.07	.26	.02	0.21	.25	.06
Education Level	-0.24	.19	-.09	-0.20	.19	-.07	-0.18	.18	-.06
Ethnic Group	0.02	.22	.01	-0.01	.22	.00	0.29	.24	.08
Gender	-0.04	.23	-.01	-0.09	.23	-.02	-0.23	.22	-.06
School Racial Stress				-0.01	.02	-.04	-0.01	.04	-.03
Racial Threat				0.04	.06	.05	0.04	.05	.04
Racial Trauma				0.12	.04	.19**	0.11	.04	.17**
Pro Socialization							0.00	.03	.00
Neg Socialization							0.03.	.05	.04
Education Prep							0.21	.04	.32**
R^2		-.01			.03			.12	
F for change in R^2		.65			4.24*			11.38**	

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 8

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Perceptions of Discrimination Against Students of Color (N = 215)

Variables	Step 1			Step 2			Step 3		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Age	-0.47	.35	-.09	-0.27	.34	-.05	-0.19	.33	-.04
Education Level	0.05	.26	.01	0.08	.25	.02	0.12	.24	.03
Ethnic Group	-1.13	.31	-.21**	-1.11	.30	-.20**	-0.39	.33	-.07
Gender	-0.16	.32	-.03	-0.03	.31	-.01	-0.10	.30	-.02
School Racial Stress				0.11	.02	.30**	0.10	.02	.29**
Racial Threat				0.11	.08	.01	0.01	.07	.01
Racial Trauma				-0.04	.	-.05	-0.08	.05	-.09
Pro Socialization							0.03	.04	.05
Neg Socialization							0.30	.07	.26**
Education Prep							0.12	.05	.13*
R^2	.04			.11			.20		
F for change in R^2	4.29**			9.39**			11.57**		

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 9

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Competence (N = 215)

Variables	Step 1			Step 2			Step 3		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Age	0.75	.55	.09	0.51	.54	.06	0.75	.53	.09
Education Level	0.12	.41	.02	0.20	.40	.03	0.24	.39	.04
Ethnic Group	0.67	.48	.08	0.59	.47	.07	0.87	.53	.11
Gender	-0.57	.50	-.07	-0.50	.49	-.06	-0.72	.48	-.09
School Racial Stress				-0.07	.03	-.12*	-0.06	.03	-.11
Racial Threat				-0.32	.12	-.17	-0.34	.12	-.18
Racial Trauma				0.38	.09	.28	0.35	.09	.26
Pro Socialization							-0.06	.07	-.06
Neg Socialization							0.06	.11	.04
Education Prep							0.35	.08	.25
R^2	.01			.06			.11		
F for change in R^2	1.38			6.97**			6.46**		

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 10.

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Racial Coping (N = 215)

Variables	Step 1			Step 2			Step 3		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Age	0.58	2.39	.02	-0.63	2.43	-.02	0.09	2.02	.00
Education Level	2.93	1.78	.11	2.91	1.77	.11	2.80	1.46	.11
Ethnic Group	-8.78	2.10	-.24*	-8.81	2.10	-.24**	1.45	1.99	.04
Gender	0.60	2.17	.02	1.12	2.19	.03	-0.20	1.82	-.01
School Racial Stress				-0.11	.14	-.04	-0.26	.12	-.11
Racial Threat				-1.17	.53	-.14*	-0.90	.44	-.11
Racial Trauma				0.27	.39	.05	0.62	.33	.10
Pro Socialization							2.72	.25	.62
Neg Socialization							-1.09	.41	-.14
Education Prep							0.73	.30	.12
<i>R</i> ²	.06			.07			.36		
<i>F</i> for change in <i>R</i> ²	5.83**			2.05**			47.62**		

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 11.

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Assertiveness (N = 215)

Variables	Step 1			Step 2			Step 3		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Age	1.51	.79	.13	1.43	.81	.12	1.73	.80	.15*
Education Level	0.39	.59	.05	0.45	.59	.05	0.48	.58	.06
Ethnic Group	-1.06	.70	-.09	-0.10	.70	-.09	-0.82	.79	-.07
Gender	0.76	.72	.06	0.86	.73	.07	0.56	.72	.05
School Racial Stress				0.00	.05	.00	0.00	.05	.01
Racial Threat				-0.20	.18	.07	-0.22	.17	-.08
Racial Trauma				0.21	.13	.11	0.21	.13	.11
Pro Socialization							-0.2	.10	-.01
Neg Socialization							-0.12	.16	-.05
Education Prep							0.43	.12	.21**
R^2	.03			.03			.06		
F for change in R^2	3.05*			1.01*			4.37**		

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 12.

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Racial Encounter Problem Solving (N = 215)

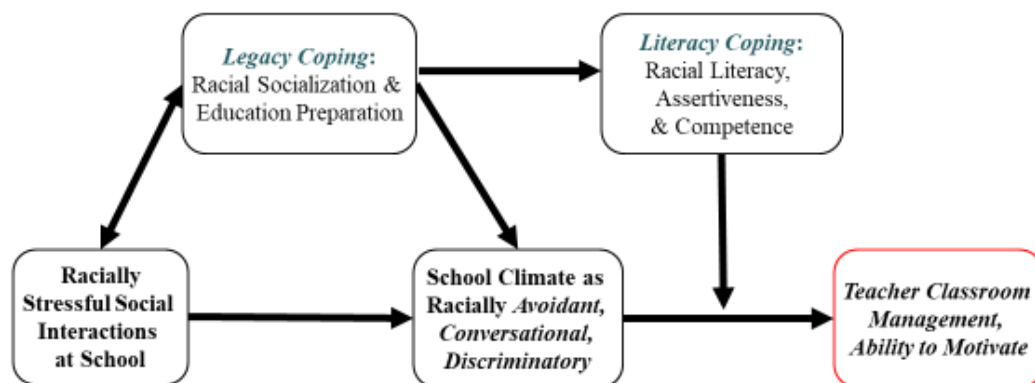
Variables	Step 1			Step 2			Step 3		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Age	1.15	.71	.11	0.61	.70	.06	0.95	.67	.09
Education Level	0.29	.53	.04	0.35	.51	.05	0.37	.49	.05
Ethnic Group	0.08	.63	.01	-0.01	.60	.00	0.60	.67	.06
Gender	0.91	.65	.08	0.98	.63	.09	0.61	.61	.06
School Racial Stress				-0.15	.04	-.21**	-0.15	.04	-.21**
Racial Threat				-0.51	.15	-.21**	-0.51	.15	-.21**
Racial Trauma				0.44	.11	.25**	0.47	.11	.27**
Pro Socialization							0.11	.08	.08
Neg Socialization							-0.27	.14	-.12*
Education Prep							0.48	.10	.26**
R^2	.02			.09			.16		
F for change in R^2	2.25			9.63**			9.41**		

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Literacy Racial Coping Influence on Classroom Management and Ability to Motivate

To answer the question of whether literacy racial coping contributes significantly to educators' perceptions of education classroom management and ability to motivate students and teachers significantly greater than school racial climate, stress and socialization factors, a second model of regression analyses was run (Figure 2). This second model targets educator effectiveness outcomes of teacher classroom management self-efficacy, ability to motivate students, and ability to motivate teachers school racial climate factors (racial avoidance, racial conversation, and student of color microaggressions) and racial coping factors (racial encounter competence, coping, and problem-solving skills), that were regressed on demographic, school racial stress interactions, racial socialization variables in a four-step hierarchical multiple regression (See Tables 13-15).

Figure 2: Impact of Literacy Coping and Racial Climate and Racial Coping on Educator Effectiveness



Independent variables were entered into the regression model with consideration of Stevenson's (2013) RECAST theory in order to assess the effects on the three dependent variables (classroom management, ability to motivate students and ability to motivate teachers). Demographic variables were entered in the model 1. Racial stress constructs were entered into model 2. Finally, racial socialization variables were entered into model 3.

Analyses demonstrate that age, perceived racial competence, threat and trauma predicted classroom management (see Table 13). Educational level, perceived encouragement of racial conversations, racial competence, and racial encounter problem solving abilities predicted educators' perceived ability to motivate students (see Table 14). Racial competence and racial problem solving predicted a perceived ability to motivate teachers (see Table 15), while those educators that perceived their environments to be less traumatic viewed themselves as having greater abilities to motivate teachers.

Table 13.

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Classroom Management (N = 215)

Variables	Step 1			Step 2			Steps 3			Step 4		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Age	3.52	.85	.28**	2.94	.85	.23**	3.21	.85	.25**	2.60	.81	.20**
Education Level	-0.04	.63	.00	-0.10	.62	-.01	-0.07	.62	-.01	-0.10	.59	-.01
Ethnic Group	-0.41	.75	-.54	-0.37	.74	-.03	0.09	.84	.01	-0.11	.80	-.01
Gender	-0.25	.77	-.33	0.12	.77	.01	-0.15	.77	-.01	-0.09	.73	-.01
School Racial Stress				0.02	.05	.02	0.02	.05	.02	0.46	.05	.05
Racial Threat				-0.57	.19	-.19**	-0.58	.19	-.20**	-0.41	.18	-.14*
Racial Trauma				-0.10	.14	-.05	-0.10	.14	-.05	-0.29	.14	-.13*
Pro Socialization							0.02	.10	.01	0.18	.12	.12
Neg Socialization							-0.05	.17	-.02	-0.07	.17	-.03
Education Prep							0.38	.13	.17**	0.18	.13	.08
Racial Problem Solving										0.16	.08	.13*
Racial Coping										-0.06	.02	-.17*
Racial Competence										0.33	.10	.21**
Sch Racial Awareness										0.12	.06	.11*
R^2	.06			.10			.12			.21		
F for change in R^2	6.10**			4.80**			3.12**			10.32**		

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 14.

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Ability to Motivate Students (N = 215)

Variables	Step 1			Step 2			Steps 3			Step 4		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Age	1.27	.46	.19**	1.22	.47	.18**	1.37	.47	.20**	1.01	.43	.15*
Education Level	0.06	.35	.01	0.06	.35	.01	0.09	.34	.02	0.03	.31	.01
Ethnic Group	-0.43	.41	-.06	-0.42	.41	-.06	0.34	.46	.05	0.07	.42	.01
Gender	-0.07	.42	-.01	0.00	.43	.00	-0.16	.42	-.02	-0.03	.39	.00
School Racial Stress				0.20	.03	.04	0.02	.03	.03	0.04	.03	.09
Racial Threat				-0.08	.10	-.05	-0.07	.10	-.05	0.06	.10	.04
Racial Trauma				-0.01	.08	-.01	-0.02	.08	-.02	-0.17	.07	-.15*
Pro Socialization							0.08	.06	.10	0.15	.06	.18*
Neg Socialization							0.11	.10	.07	0.09	.09	.06
Education Prep							0.21	.07	.17**	0.06	.07	.05
Racial Problem Solving										0.10	.04	.15*
Racial Coping										-0.02	.01	-.12
Racial Competence										0.30	.15	.35**
Sch Racial Awareness										0.03	.03	.05
R^2			.03			.02			.06			.23
F for change in R^2			3.19*			.34			5.56**			17.00**

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 15.

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Ability to Motivate Teachers (N = 215)

Variables	Step 1			Step 2			Steps 3			Step 4		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Age	0.25	.54	.03	0.22	.55	.03	0.46	.54	.06	0.01	.50	.15*
Education Level	0.81	.40	.14*	0.78	.40	.13 ^t	0.79	.39	.14*	0.66	.36	.01 ^t
Ethnic Group	0.00	.48	.00	0.02	.48	.02	0.32	.54	.04	0.10	.49	.01
Gender	0.18	.49	.02	0.10	.50	.01	-0.15	.49	-.02	-0.20	.45	.00
School Racial Stress				-0.03	.03	-.07	-0.03	.03	-.06	0.01	.03	.09
Racial Threat				0.09	.12	.05	0.84	.12	.05	0.27	.11	.04*
Racial Trauma				-0.08	.09	-.06	-0.07	.09	-.05	-0.25	.08	-.15**
Pro Socialization							0.03	.07	.03	0.04	.07	.18
Neg Socialization							-0.16	.11	-.09	-0.11	.10	.06
Education Prep							0.34	.08	.24**	0.14	.08	.05
Racial Problem Solving										0.23	.05	.15**
Racial Coping										-0.01	.01	-.12
Racial Competence										0.18	.60	.35**
Sch Racial Awareness										0.07	.04	.05 ^t
<i>R</i> ²			.01			.01			.06			.22
<i>F</i> for change in <i>R</i> ²			2.08			.90			6.47**			16.38**

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. ^t = Approaching significance

Cluster Analyses

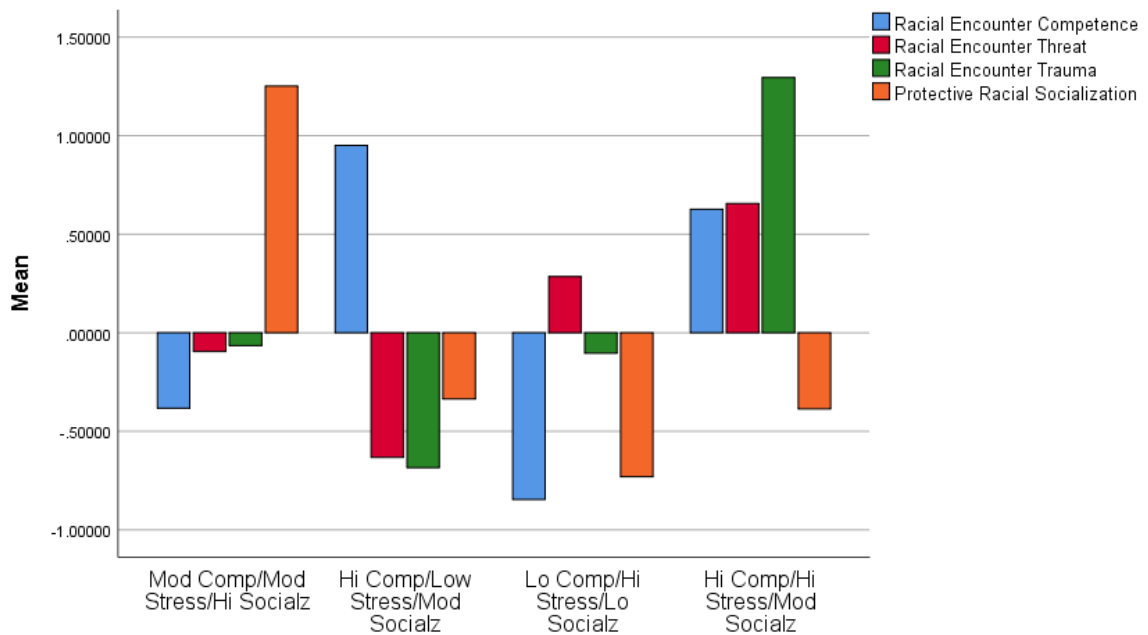
In order to answer research Questions 4, cluster analyses were conducted. As previously stated, the research questions are below:

Question 4: Do distinct profiles or clusters using racial socialization and racial encounter stress reaction variables (trauma, threat, and competence) represent the diversity of educators in this sample?

Hypothesis 4 (Distinct clusters will exist that yield a profile of educators with high racial socialization, low racial stress, and high racial coping abilities.) was partially supported. Analyses resulted in four clusters. The four clusters are composed of measures which include a) protective racial socialization, b) racial encounter competence, c) racial encounter threat, and d) racial encounter trauma (see Chart 1). Given that perceptions of threat and trauma responded in similar manners, they are collectively referred to as stress, as previously done.

The first cluster is composed of educators with high experiences of protective racial socialization, moderate racial competence, moderate racial encounter stress and trauma ($n = 38$). The second cluster is composed of educators who reported moderate protective racial socialization, high competence, low racial threat and trauma ($n = 22$). The third cluster is composed of educators with low protective racial socialization, low competence, and moderate perceptions of threat and trauma ($n = 41$). The fourth cluster is composed of educators who experienced moderate protective racial socialization, high competence, high perceptions of racial threat and trauma ($n = 30$).

Chart 1: *Cluster Analysis of Protective Racial Socialization, Racial Encounter Competence, Racial Encounter Threat and Racial Encounter Trauma*



Using the four clusters that were derived, analyses was conducted looking at racially avoidant school climate, school racial stress (i.e. perceptions of threat and trauma), school racial discussion, and microaggressions toward students of color (see Chart 2).

Educators in cluster 1, which reported high incidents of protective racial socialization, were most likely to indicate that their schools were racially avoidant as well as most likely to perceive their schools as perpetrating microaggressions against students of color.

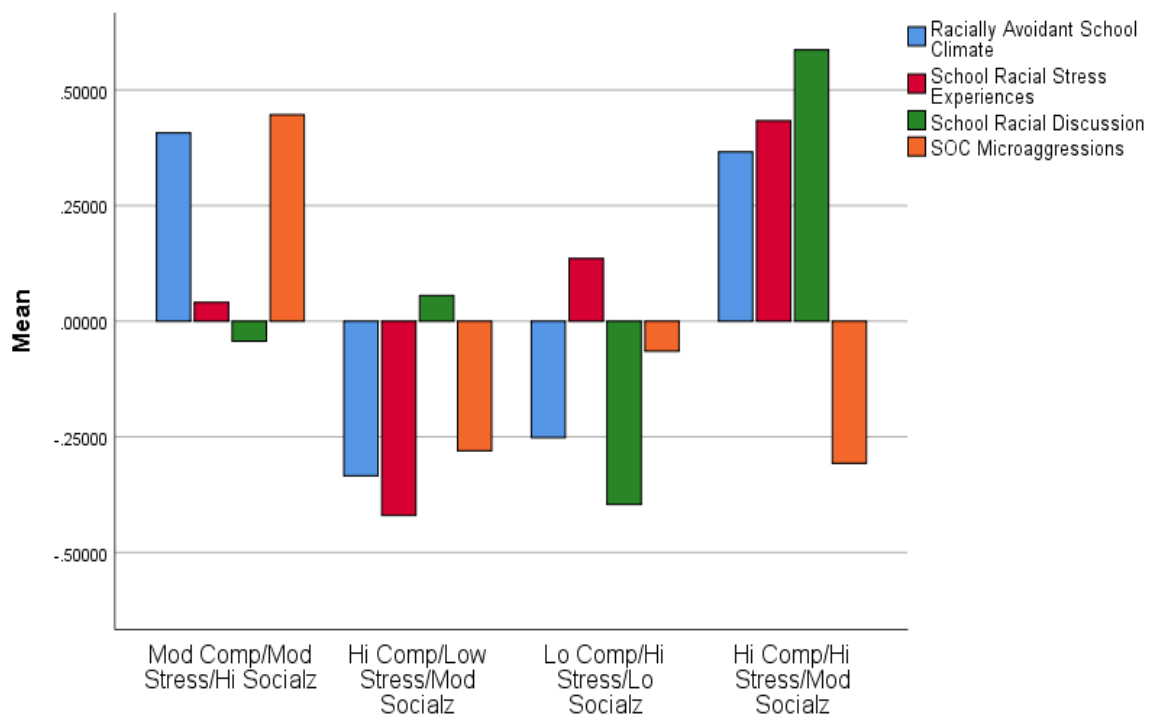
Educators in cluster 2, which assessed themselves as having the highest levels of racial encounter competence and lowest levels of stress, also reported experiencing the least amount of school racial stress. In addition, they reported that that their schools are the

least racially avoidant and has the least amount of microaggressions committed against students of color.

Educators in cluster 3, which reported the least amount of racial encounter competence and least amount of protective racial socialization, also reported that their schools are least likely to encourage racial discussions.

Educators in cluster 4, which reported the highest perceptions of racial trauma and threat, reported the highest experiences of school racial stress. However, this cluster also reported having the highest perceptions of their schools being open to racial conversations/discussions.

Chart 2: *Cluster Analysis of Racially Avoidant School Climate, School Racial Stress Experience, School Racial Discussion and Microaggressions against Students of Color*



In order to answer the final research question, additional cluster analyses were executed using racial coping. Question 5 was as follows:

Question 5: How do educator racial encounter stress reaction clusters differ according to racial variables (racial school climate, racial stress and racial coping) and non-racial variables (teacher classroom management and ability to motivate students and teachers)?

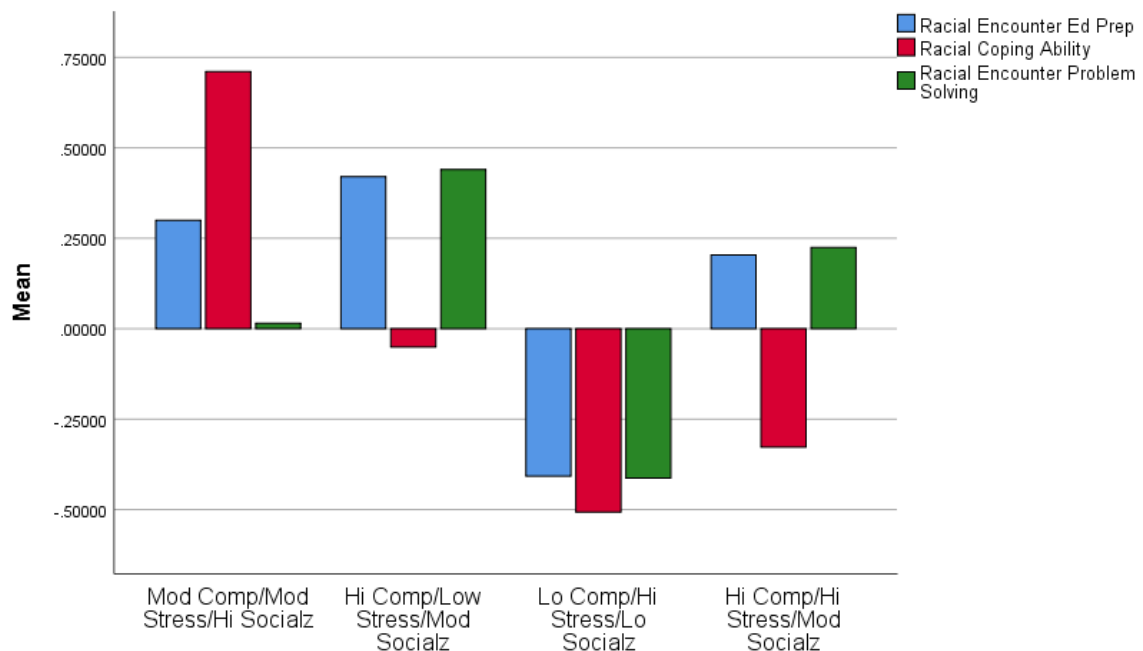
Using these same clusters, additional analyses focused on racial encounter educational preparation, racial coping abilities, and racial encounter problem solving (see Chart 3). Collectively, analyses indicated that educators with higher racial socialization, higher experiences of educational preparation around racial issues, and relatively high levels of racial educational preparation are more likely to perceive their school climates as social contexts that avoid racial issues while enacting microaggressive behaviors against students of color.

Cluster 1, with the highest reports of protective racial socialization also reported the highest perceived capabilities to cope with racial conflicts.

Cluster 2, which reported the lowest perceptions of racial stress, indicated that they experienced the greatest amount of formal education preparation around issues of racial issues, along with the highest level of racial encounter problem solving.

Cluster 3, which reported the least experiences around racial socialization, reported the least amount of educational preparation around issues of racial. In addition, this group also reported the least abilities to cope with racial issues and problem solving around issues of race.

Chart 3: *Cluster Analysis of Racial Encounter Educational Preparation, Racial Coping Ability and Racial Encounter Problem Solving*



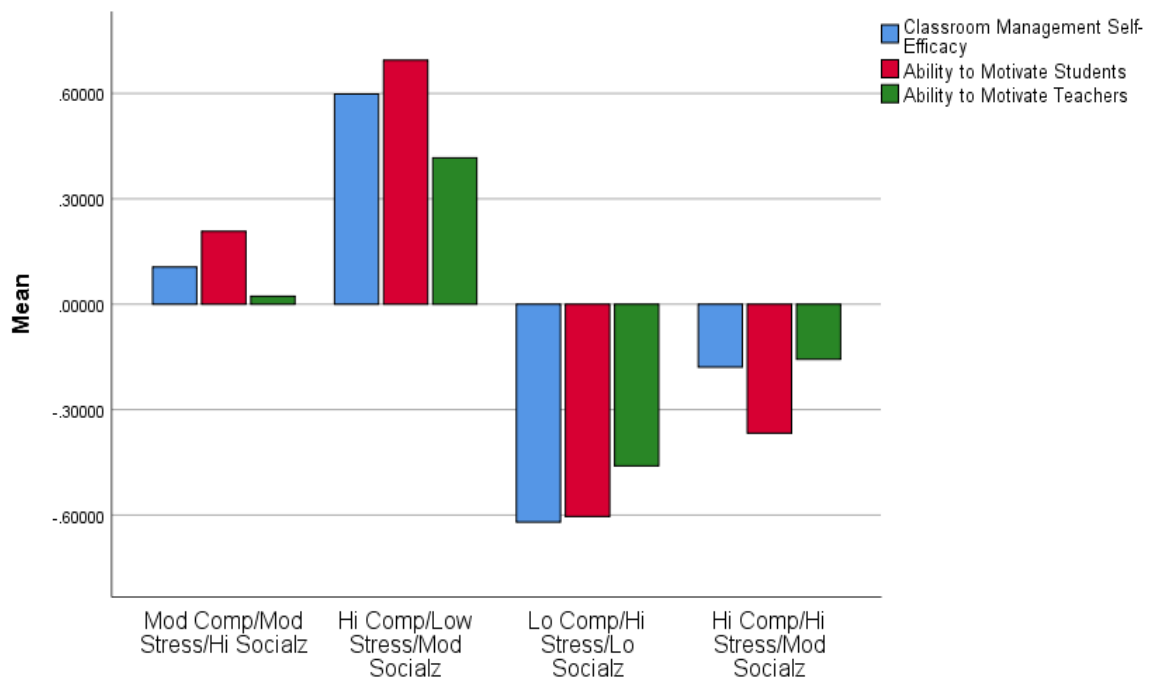
Finally, continuing to use the four clusters that were derived, additional analyses were conducted looking at the three dependent variables: classroom management, ability to motivate students, and ability to motivate teachers (see Chart 4). The cluster of educators that reported having greatest amount of racial socialization also reported having the greatest abilities to cope with racial issues.

Educators in cluster 2, the group that reported the greatest amount of educational preparation concerning race and racial encounter competence, also reported the high perceptions of teacher competence across all measures: classroom management, ability to motivate students, and ability to motivate teachers.

Educators in cluster 3, which reported the lowest educational preparation and coping ability across measures also reported the lowest perceptions of classroom management, ability to motivate students and ability to motivate teachers.

Educators in cluster 4, which reported the highest perceptions of racially avoidant schools also assessed themselves to be relatively low across all three measures of teacher competency.

Chart 4: Cluster Analysis of Classroom Management, Ability to Motivate Students and Ability to Motivate Teachers



Summary of Results

This study yielded a number of important findings concerning the relationships between racial socialization, perceptions of school climate, experiences of stress, and teacher outcome variables. A number of demographic differences were found among racial minority educators and White educators. Notably, ethnic minority educators

experienced more racial socialization (during childhood and via their educational preparation), perceived their school climates as being more racially avoidant, and reported greater perceptions of incidents of microaggressions against students of color.

Among all educators, perceptions of schools being racially avoidant climates were strongly correlated with perceptions of students of color being subjected to discrimination (i.e. microaggressions), experiencing racial stress, as well as perceiving race related stress to be threatening and traumatizing. Educators who experienced higher amounts of all forms of racial socialization assessed themselves as being assertive regarding engaging racial issues.

Racial socialization (protective and racial encounter educational preparation) demonstrated significant positive correlations with educator ability to motivate students and teachers; however, no form of racial socialization had a direct correlation with classroom management. In addition, perceiving oneself to be assertive concerning issues of race was strongly correlated with multiple constructs (e.g., perceptions that schools welcomed racial conversations, ability to solve problematic racial issues, effectively manage their classroom, ability to motivate students, and ability to motivate teachers).

Regression analyses demonstrated that age, perceived racial competence, as well as perceptions of threat and trauma influence classroom management. Educators who are older, believed themselves to be high on racial competence, as well as perception of discrimination against students of color increased a perceived ability to motivate students.

A consistent trend across analyses revealed that racial encounter educational preparation positively impacted perceptions of racial competence, increased racial coping

and racial encounter problem solving, as well as increased perceived ability to motivate students and colleagues. This was reinforced by the cluster analyses, which also demonstrated that educators with fewer experiences of childhood racial socialization and educational preparation were likely to perceived of themselves as having low racial coping abilities as well as low classroom management skills and decreased abilities to motivate students and colleagues.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

This research sought to better understand educators' perceptions of the racial dynamics in their school environment. The role of educators remains pivotal to the development of adolescents and adults, as they serve as intentional and unintentional socializing agents. Their perceptions of their school social climates are influenced by a range of factors, which influence how they respond and subsequently engage with students and colleagues around issues such as race and diversity. These social dynamics are influenced by the policies that are put in place by leaders at the school, city, state and national levels.

Accordingly, it is important to adequately understand established policies as well as policies that should be put in place in order to optimize the experience of teachers and students. Understanding the perspectives of educators who serve in both teacher and administrator roles – in and outside of the classroom – is crucial to understanding their psychological and emotional state of being, so that they can best serve students. The results of this study contribute to the body of research and dialogue concerning the experiences faced by educators in diverse school settings. This research pays particular attention to differences among educators that are young and White, as that demographic continues to enter into the educational field at disproportionate rates despite the growing population of diversity in the United States.

Utilizing the aforementioned theoretical frameworks, Critical Race Theory (CRT), Racial/Ethnic Coping and Agency Socialization Theory (RECAST), and the

Phenomenological Variant of Ecological Systems Theory (PVEST) to examine the experiences of educators will serve to better understand the dynamics and the potential impact that they may have on students and educators alike. Whereas CRT is a broad theory used commonly across multiple disciplines, and used increasingly more in the field of education, RECAST and PVEST are newer theories, both devised in an attempt to better understand the complexities and subtleties of human interaction as it relates to perceptions of racial interactions and human development.

Summary of Key Findings

In an effort to address these concerns and better understand educator perceptions of school racial stress dynamics, this research utilized statistical techniques to explore racial socialization, racial coping, racial climate, classroom management and abilities to motivate students and colleagues. Ethnic minority faculty reported experiencing more racial socialization during childhood as well as higher perceptions of racially challenging school climates. In addition, racial minority educators maintained higher perceptions of discrimination directed toward students of color by school personnel.

The results of this study also demonstrate that there are significant relationships between educators' experience of race-related stress and a desire to avoid racial conflict in their schools. Likewise, there is an extremely strong relationship between protective racial socialization that educators receive during childhood and their current racial coping abilities while at work. There were also strong relationships between negative socialization experiences during childhood and perceptions that an educator's school

attempts to avoid discussions about race, as well as perceptions that students of color are enduring microaggressions.

This study also explored the relationships among teacher efficacy constructs. The perceived ability to best exercise classroom management was strongly related to educators' beliefs about their perceived ability to be assertive in regards to speaking up and problem solving when it comes to racial issues. The perception that an educator can competently solve the problem of a racial encounter was also related strongly with a perceived ability to successfully motivate students and teachers. Educators that believed that they were capable of motivating teachers were assertive when engaging in conversations concerned with race-related issues and also perceived of their environments as spaces in which they could constructively engage in racial conversations.

Additionally, this study observed that increased racial socialization experiences makes perceptions of racial microaggressions against students of color a more salient issue. These findings suggest that observation of more microaggressions increases an educator's experiences of school racial stress, as well as multiple past experiences of racial socialization.

This chapter highlights the major findings of this study and provides implications for practitioners and researchers interested in improving the racial climate of K-12 education. The role of racial socializing agents as well as the role of educators' perceptions of threat and trauma are explored as they relate to their ability to cope are discussed as it relates to the findings of this study.

Factors Influencing Classroom Management and Ability to Motivate Students

Classroom management is a persistent and common problem for many educators. This is particularly true for teachers in racially diverse classrooms. While teachers often have varied methods of impacting and successfully regulating their classrooms, a central component of an ability to do so has proven to be strong teacher-student relationships. As research has demonstrated, employing a one-size-fits-all approach is often not effective (Manning, Kinzie, & Schuh, 2013). This entails utilizing culturally responsive pedagogy and cultivating school communities that encourage educators to examine their practices and actively seek to learn about themselves as well as their students (Marzano, 2003; Weinstein & Tomlinson-Clarke, 2004). Specifically, research has demonstrated that high quality student-teacher relationships involve educators genuinely caring about their students and believing in the abilities of their students (Cotton, 2001).

The findings of this study demonstrate that perceptions of classroom management and perceptions of ability to motivate students consistently interact similarly with stress and racial socialization variables. The finding that educators with the highest levels of racial encounter educational preparation were also highest in racial encounter problem solving, classroom management, and ability to motivate students is an important one. Thus, there are implications that an ability to motivate students and manage classrooms are linked to educators' abilities to forge substantive relationships with diverse students via the acquisition of racial socialization experiences during their teacher education preparation programs.

Racial Competence

Racial competence and perceptions of the availability of help (i.e. support) is an important concept to understand when dealing with potentially stressful encounters. This is particularly true when educators are faced with routine, sometimes daily, occurrences of racial interactions in and outside of the classroom. Given that racially competent educators in the current study are less likely to feel racially threatened or distressed by racial encounters, it is important to note that this same group reported that they have received more preparation to deal with racial encounters as a result of their educational preparation. Thus, educational institutions that prepare educators serve an important role in dismantling the stress that teachers may encounter in and outside of the classroom.

Training educators to perform well in their respective roles in the field of education involves more than relaying the mechanics of instruction and logistics; rather, training teachers to understand the instrumental role they play in providing social context to other educators as well as students, so that they can effectively detect, process, and resolve racial encounters in a healthy manner is imperative (Stevenson, 2011). Providing training that allows for effective and competent recognition, reactivity and responses will effectively enable educators to decrease their levels of distress, thereby reducing teacher burnout and sustaining the teacher population. As previously mentioned, this is an issue that is particularly important in areas of greatest diversity and high teacher demand around the country.

As Ladson-Billings and Tate (2016) asserted, there is a need to go beyond previously held notions of multicultural education in schools and implement policies that

generate substantive interactions beyond exploring diverse cultural foods, songs, and fables from other cultures. Therefore, there exists a continued need to promote and sustain programming in schools that substantively promote racial interactions at the staff and student levels. As CRT contends, this need can best be met if race is understood to be a central component of social interactions. In order for educators and youth to competently understand race, they must be socialized to do so.

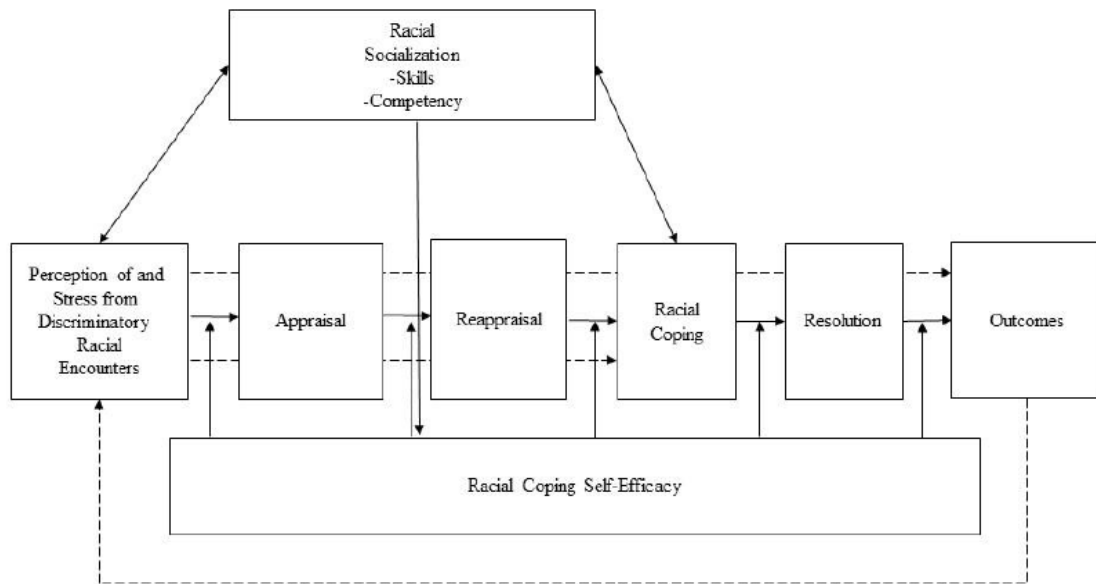
Racial Socialization

Racial socialization is particularly important for those aspiring educators who may not have benefited from receiving socialization messages during childhood or adolescence. The findings of this study demonstrate the role of racial socialization in mediating the relationship between an educators' perceptions of racial interactions in a school environment and how they interpret and process those interactions as potentially stressful to their individual well-being. Racial socialization – whether it is received by family, teachers or other socializing agents – provides individuals with perspective and coping abilities that allows them to better detect and process racialized incidents when they are witnessed. This socialization is conceptualized as *Legacy Coping* (see Figure 1).

From a RECAST perspective, the findings of this research suggest that *Legacy Coping* is engaged during racial encounters as a function of racial socialization in the form of family messaging during childhood or adolescence and educational preparation around the occurrences of racial encounters. The heightened awareness of the occurrences of potentially stressful social interactions has the potential to mediate the manner in which an individual interprets (i.e. appraise) these social contexts.

Consequently, if individuals view their social (i.e. school) context as one that is prone to avoidance, supportive of open dialogue and conversation, or mediums of discriminatory practices, they may reappraise their perspectives regarding social interactions based on these past experiences. They may also reappraise conflict as more (or less) stressful or threatening (or safe) given the history and dynamic of their environment(s). These (re)appraisals of the environment produce racial coping strategies, which may lead to a resolution and subsequent outcome (Stevenson, 2014). Thus, those without ample racial socialization experiences and/or those who choose to practice notions of colorblindness are more likely to remain blind to racism, prejudices and subtle biases that transpire around them.

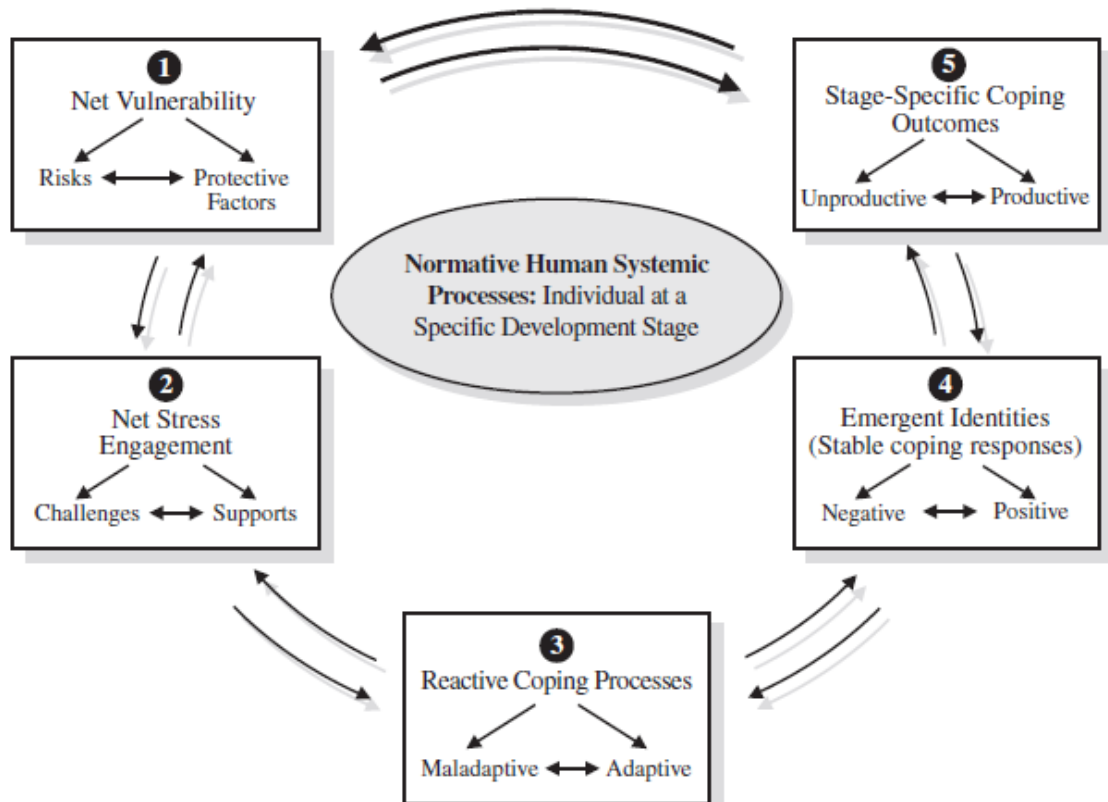
Figure 3: *Racial/Ethnic Coping and Agency Socialization Theory (RECAST)*



This research also examined the relationship between perceptions of racial stress and teacher efficacy (i.e. classroom management and ability to motivate students and

teachers) with consideration of the role of additional coping practices. These practices of maintaining a sense of competence and employing a degree of assertiveness, conceptualized as *Literacy Coping* (see Figure 2), can enable, or disable, educators to effectively engage with students and faculty. Subsequently, individuals who perceive themselves as competent – and aware of sources of support – will be better able to employ skills that will achieve maximum benefits for both student and colleagues. This skill set is also promotive of understanding teacher mental health, as teachers with these abilities are more likely to have reduced stress – though they may perceive high levels of threat or potential trauma.

Figure 4: *Phenomenological Variant of Ecological Systems Theory (PVEST)*



From a PVEST (Spencer et al., 2006) perspective, having experienced racial socialization presents as a protective factor (Stage 1: Net vulnerability). In turn, racially stressful social contexts could be said to function as challenges (Stage 2: Net Stress Engagement) which are filtered by previous racial socialization experiences, which, in turn, allows for adaptive coping (Stage 3: Reactive Coping). Subsequently, the (identity of an) environment is determined to be positive or negative (Stage 4: Emergent Identity) and finally results in productive abilities (e.g., high teacher efficacy skills).

Racial Microaggressions Against Students of Color

The strength of the relationship between educator perceptions of racial microaggressions toward students of color and educator's experience of school racial stress is an important one. Expectedly, educators with multiple past experiences of racial socialization (i.e., protective socialization and racial encounter educational preparation) perceived there to be more incidents of racial microaggressions towards students of color in their respective schools. Additionally, educators who had experienced high protective racial socialization during their adolescence, experienced moderate amounts of racial stress, and perceived themselves to be moderate in their competences to adequately deal with racial conflict. They were also most likely to perceive there to be microaggressions directed toward students of color. The juxtaposition of this finding against that which demonstrates that educators with moderate to low protective racial socialization suggest that the biases against students of color go largely unobserved.

Together, this dynamic suggests that protective racial socialization provides individuals with an important lens with which to view and assess their social

environments. Past socializing experiences, largely by family, generate a degree of salience around issues of race, allowing individuals to be more empathetic to the condition of others (e.g. students) who may endure social hardship. As Ladson-Billings (1998) notes, Critical Race Theory contends that racial biases are everywhere, including educational institutions. Consequently, as schools continue their roles of preparing youth to contribute to the future of the American fabric, it is important to understand the prevalence and potency of microaggressive acts (Nadal et al., 2014). The results of this study suggest that such microaggressions can be more readily distinguished by individuals who have greater experiences of racial socialization.

Educators with the highest socialization experiences expressed the greatest abilities to cope with racial encounters. Therefore, these findings reinforce the importance of the role of racial socialization in providing educators with lenses with which to adequately detect social biases that are directed toward students.

Unfortunately, educators who experience high protective racial socialization, were also most likely to perceive of their school climates as racially avoidant spaces. Thus, while they perceived their school environments to be places where students were prone to be exposed to discrimination from teachers and administrators, they were more inclined to perceive these contexts as spaces to avoid. This propensity toward avoidance of racial dialogue undoubtedly maintains the culturally suppressive environment and sustains the negative dynamics, in which students of color are still expected to endure as they matriculate through school.

While microaggressions may be conscious or subconscious on the part of the perpetrator, they are nonetheless significant interactions that have the ability to incapacitate victims (Sue, 2005). In such instances of K-12 educational interactions and student learning, these dynamics may be compounding, effectively building over time to have a detrimental impact on the target of the aggressive behaviors (Sue, Lin, Torino, Capodilupo and Rivera, 2009).

Stevenson (2014) notes that many schools fail to act on racial microaggressions due to the high levels of stress that is experienced while negotiating such issues. Stevenson contends that this stress is due to fears of incompetence and the potential for exposure of fault, which results in educational institutions continuing to avoid addressing racial issues. The results of this study reinforce this dynamic, given that educators who indicated higher incidents of racial microaggressions towards students of color also indicated higher perceptions of their school climates being racially avoidant.

The research of Michael (2014) assists in understanding the pervasiveness of this phenomenon that often occurs in schools that are led by predominantly White staff. Her work examining the racial socialization dynamics of White families found that racial socialization does not typically occur within White households because parents do not consider racial competency/ literacy as a skill that their children will need as they navigate society. As a result, if White parents opt to socialize their children around the issue of race, it tends to be done passively. Michael (2014) points out that this practice of White parents only socializing children in this way often leads to silence.

Consequently, a continuation to avoid important racial issues that are critical to socializing future generations to interact in a healthy way will continue providing unhealthy spaces and unhealthy social models for White and minority children. Therefore, racial microaggressions should be instigators of racial dialogues (Sue & Constantine, 2009; Sue, Lin, Torino, Capodilupo & Rivera, 2009).

Supporting Literature

As McIntosh (1988) brought to bear in her discussion of the “invisible knapsack”, White privilege is a systematic problem that persists across a number of social contexts. The institutionalization of this phenomenon is so widespread that it often goes unnoticed and/or unacknowledged – by both those that perpetrate it and those that must endure it. As a result of this unearned privilege, individuals (i.e. students) will continue to suffer unfairly in socially constructed systems that have been either designed or unintentionally left to impede their academic and social success.

As Spencer and Tinsley (2010) note, “it is critical that educators prepare to be effective instructors who are response to the needs of ethnically diverse learnings, include students of color, which requires sustaining students sense of competency and enhancing resiliency outcomes” (p. 811). Educators who exhibit microaggressions by maintaining low expectations of the abilities of minority youth play a detrimental role in the lives of students and their parents. These perspectives can have a negative effect on how students view themselves and their capabilities. The foundational work of Dweck and Bempechat (1983) highlighted the need to address the perceptive of younger and older youth regarding fixed intelligence. With consideration of this work, the research of Spencer and

Tinsley (2010) suggested that adolescents in urban, northeastern schools who believed in the concept of fixed intelligence maintain low educational expectations of themselves. For older (11th and 12th grade) students, a combination of protective factors and risk factors had implications for educational expectations. Specifically, positive teacher perceptions had a positive relationship with educational expectations.

Thus, it is important that minority adolescents in diverse school contexts – who are disproportionately more likely to be taught by younger and White educators – have educators that are trained to understand their own potential biases. This understanding may serve to quell the subconscious biases that some prospective educators would bring into the classroom.

For younger students, Spencer and Tinsley (2010) found that student perceptions of school climate had a greater effect on their educational expectations. Given that school climate was assessed by responses to such questions as “This school encourages me to be proud of my racial and ethnic heritage.”, these findings align with the present study and provide support for the notion that supportive school climates and intentions around messages of race, culture and, diversity are important at both the student and educator level.

As Hughes et al (2006) indicates, racial socialization should be customized based on the community context of the individuals and the spaces in which they reside and interact. For most youth, schools provide much of that context given the number of hours spent in school each week for 12 of the first 18 years of life.

The educators that serve as teachers and administrators in these K-12 contexts are responsible for filtering and providing the social and educational context for subsequent generation of citizens that will, in turn, contribute to shaping the larger social context for additional generations.

LIMITATIONS

Response completion rate to the survey was a notable limitation. As noted in the methodology, a review of the data made evident that 96 individuals who initiated the questionnaire and engaged in the questionnaire did not complete any items beyond the demographic questions.

It would be beneficial to this current study and future studies to analyze the characteristics of those individuals who opted not to engage in the survey questions in order to ascertain the characteristics of K-12 educators that are seemingly unwilling to engage in topics revolving around, racial school climate. An analysis of this demographic information may provide a starting point for increasing understanding of the types of teacher who, perhaps, need the most support given that they demonstrated avoidance of responding to questions regarding this important subject. It could be the case that educators who are unwilling to engage with such sensitive social matters in a questionnaire format, with this degree of anonymity, are likely unwilling to engage with such matters with other individuals (i.e. students, peers, administrators and parents).

Another limitation, as noted in the methodology section, a power analysis indicated that there were not enough participants who identified in each ethnic group to perform an analysis of each group represented in the “ethnic minority” category.

Accordingly, the present study could not identify group differences among ethnic minority K-12 educators or differences in relation to White K-12 educators. Future studies can take additional steps to increase the number of overall participants in the study in order to obtain a robust population of respondents in each category.

Similarly, there were additional variables that were collapsed in preparation for analysis due to a lack of representation. In addition to ethnicity, these variables included age, faculty position, type of college/university attended, and region of the country where presently teaching.

The age of participants was solicited via an indication of age group (e.g., 25-30, 31-35). There were not adequate numbers in each age group to accurately analyze the data. In order to evenly split the sample population for analyses, this was collapsed into participants who were 30 and under and participants who were 31 and over. In an effort to avoid this occurrence and to be able to effectively analyze the data as continuous variables, participant age should be entered numerically. This would allow for additional correlational analysis.

Faculty position was also collapsed into teachers and administrators due to a skewed representation of educators who responded. Participants were given a number of options; however, some did not specify their positions. There was an “Other” category; however, many did not specify what type of position they held. Having more robust response categories for this option would allow for more analyses of the differences that may exist across variables. In addition, it would be beneficial to conduct a study that specifically targets administration and their perspectives on these issues. Given that

policies are often created and supported due to administrative efforts, it is important to obtain more of their unique perspectives.

Type of college is a variable of interest given that it may be an indication of how various college train the teachers that they produce. Participants were asked if they attended a public, private, state, ivy league, Women's college or HBCU. The responses were collapsed into public, private, and other. Women's colleges and HBCUs were categorized as "Other" since some may be private and others may be public. However, these 2 types of colleges, given their unique histories and social situational context, may produce teachers that have different experiences and different means of coping, relative to other teachers.

In addition, as previously mentioned, the sample population of the current study overwhelmingly from the northeast section of the country. Given that the northeastern region of the country is statistically more diverse than the rest of the country, it is beneficial to capture their experiences; however, conducting additional experiments with sample populations that focus on other regions of the country with various levels of diversity may yield interesting findings. The level of diversity, coupled with the sociohistorical context of various regions may have an impact on the findings. This may be particularly interesting to test in regions of the country that are historically less diverse.

An additional limitation of the current study is that participants were not asked the grade level that they teach. Soliciting the grade levels of respondents could have demonstrated an important difference in the perception of racial school climate,

experiences of stress and ability to motivate students and colleagues. Given that students are experiencing significantly different periods of cognitive and social development in earlier years of school (elementary) in comparison to middle and high school, their awareness and expectations of peers and teachers and interactions are significantly different. Accordingly, teachers generally have notably different experiences managing classrooms at different grade levels due to the different ages of students. Accordingly, the educators of various grade levels may have different experiences engaging students and teachers around issues of diversity due to the ages of students.

For the above reasons, the results of the current study may not be readily generalizable to all educators across the country, even though the sample is relatively representative of the current demographics of educators in the United States

Recommendations for Future Research

Future research on the topic of racial stress would benefit the field of education and psychology by providing additional framing to school contexts that shape successive generations. Additional research should focus further on the different comments of racial encounters, looking specifically at what types of racial conflicts are occurring and how educators perceive and respond to them. Furthermore, more efforts must be made to understand the different perspectives of administrators relative to teacher populations, as these findings suggest that individuals with higher degrees (i.e., administrators) have differing perspectives on their school climates, potential stress, and agency to effect change.

CONCLUSIONS

Educators' experiences of school racial stress strongly correlated with increased perception of difficult racial climates and the potential for traumatic effects of racial experiences. Accordingly, it is important to better understand the complex interactions that racial encounters may have on the health and psychological well-being of all teachers, as they are responsible for teaching, educating and socializing our most vulnerable and impressionable citizens. Promoting racial socialization as an intentional method of transmitting beliefs and behaviors is important in an increasingly diverse society. This research demonstrates the importance that childhood and secondary education play in the formation and utilization of coping skills that serve teachers well in terms of limiting their stress when entering and surviving in racially threatening work contexts.

Implications

This research highlights a need to continue to interpret race and ethnicity policy dynamics in K-12 education. The implementation of policies at this level should be accurately considered in an effort to move conversations about addressing race in classrooms from the margins (i.e., research) to the center of institutional consciousness. This means an intentional focus on effective strategies as well as intentional messaging that will lead to a substantive impact on dynamics between administrators, teachers, and students. These steps are necessary for educators to develop better social and coping skills and for transparency about racial and ethnic policy making.

It is important to recognize the different ways in which racial conversations are engaged or suppressed within educational culture and the individuals, behaviors, and beliefs that have actively and passively maintained them so that they can be adequately addressed. Consequently, steps can be made to ensure that primary education contexts are racially conscious spaces, which is especially important given that there are many educational institutions that believe themselves to be race neutral; thereby, sustaining institutional biases.

Policy Implications

Primary education is the foundation of our educational system, consequently, it is an institution that greatly contributes to the social, cultural, racial and educational premise for how citizens navigate the social world.

As such, it is imperative that K-12 education institutions make a more concerted effort toward understanding the importance of providing training to educators, at each faculty level, that address cultural and ethnic issues that may potentially surface within school contexts. Therefore, it is important to understand the individuals who enter into teaching programs and the backgrounds and perspectives that they bring into the classrooms in which they teach and administrative offices in which they work.

Therefore, policy recommendations as formed from the results of this study may include K-12 institutions recognizing and acknowledging that teachers of all ethnic backgrounds benefit from racial socialization practices. This is particularly important for aspiring educators who intend to teach diverse populations of students. Consequently, educator programs should seek to develop curriculum that aims to provide future teachers

and administrators in order to best prepare them to competently address covert and overt racial conflicts amongst students and faculty. These policies are necessary to address conscious and unconscious issues of racial/ethnic bias that systematically arise within educational contexts nationwide (Gillborn, 2014; Dee & Gershenson, 2017). Policies that promote addressing ethnic diversity may consequently promote school contexts as healthy and welcoming spaces of acceptance and safety. In turn, high school completion rates may increase as result of students perceiving schools as places that are genuinely concerned for their well-being.

Training teachers to adequately address racial/ethnic conflict will also prepare students to better deal with racial/ethnic conflict themselves, as they matriculate through school and continue to secondary education and/or into the workforce. This is particularly important given the increasing diversity of the United States. Accordingly, while there has been a push for the utilization of culturally relevant pedagogy and teaching practices (Ladson-Billings, 2014; Aronson & Laughter, 2016), there is also a need for educator training that specifically deals with reducing various types of social conflict, including race.

According to Critical Race Theory, traditional institutions of education are not safe spaces for individuals of color. This notion applies to students and faculty alike. Considering the sociopolitical histories of most school contexts, there exists an aforementioned bias which students and teachers must learn to navigate in order to successfully endure these environments.

A disproportionate number of White teachers and administrators in most K-12 educational schools persist, despite various methods of integration which has increased diversity by changing school catchment zones – exacerbated by increasing gentrification (Ho, Vincent & Butler, 2015). Therefore, it is unsurprising that many school systems continue to perpetuate bias toward students of color.

These biases are also reflected in the response of minority educators, who maintained higher perceptions of their schools being racially avoidant climates. Coupled together, these findings reinforce the notion that there is a persistent need for attention to be given to the adequate implementation of policies that promote inclusion and encourages the review of disciplinary action in order to decrease biased. According to the premise of CRT, a lack of action would serve to sustain the privilege that benefits White students, teachers, and administrators – whether stakeholders are conscious or unconscious of the prevailing dynamics.

This realization of the potential impact of receiving substantive educational training around issues of race is extremely important. While it is difficult to change the socialization practices of individual families, the knowledge that educational experiences can have such significant effects is encouraging. Such findings suggest that the work necessary to prepare teachers for classrooms of diverse students is readily possible if schools of education put forth efforts to augment their curriculum in ways which facilitate the pervasive acquisition of learning and dealing with racially, ethnically, and culturally diverse populations of students. These findings speak to the need to increase teaching programs to purposefully include curriculum that incorporates culturally

appropriate pedagogy as well as adopting knowledge of how to properly acknowledge, engage, and competently address social issues so that race-related problems are solved in a healthy and effective manner.

APPENDIX A

Measures

DEMOGRAPHICS

Please indicate your ETHNICITY:

Asian	_____
Black/African American	_____
Black/Latino	_____
Indigenous/Native American	_____
Latino	_____
Middle Eastern	_____
Multiracial	_____
White	_____

Please indicate your GENDER:

Female	_____
Male	_____

Please indicate your AGE:

18-21	_____
22-30	_____
31-40	_____
41-50	_____
51-60	_____
61+	_____

I have read the entire consent form to participate in this study. Please check the box below. If you have additional questions, please contact Howard Stevenson, Chief Investigator.

☐

On a scale from 1-10 how stressed are you now?

Imagine: (1) is an anthill level of stress (not stressed) (5) is the stress of mountain climbing (somewhat stressed) (10) is the stress of facing a tsunami (very stressed)

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Highest Education Completed?

High School	_____
Community College/Associates	_____
College (BA, BS, AB)	_____
Advanced (MA, MS, MBA)	_____
Doctoral (MD, JD, PHD)	_____

The Undergraduate college I attended is best described as? - Selected Choice

Public	_____
Private	_____
State-Affiliated	_____
Ivy League	_____
HBCU	_____
Women's	_____
Other	_____

The Undergraduate college I attended is best described as? - Other (Please Specify)

--

What is your current position? - Selected Choice

Teacher	_____
Assistant Administrator	_____
Division Head	_____
Head	_____
Principal	_____
Counselor	_____
Social Worker	_____
Support Professional	_____
Other	_____

How Many Years Have you been an educator? - Years of Experience

Describe the type of school you work in (Select as many as applicable): - Other (Please specify)

--

The geographic region of my school/organization is:

Urban	_____
Inner-City	_____
Rural	_____
Suburban	_____
Other	_____

My Organization/Schools Locale Can Be Best Described as: - Selected Choice

Northeast	_____
Southeast	_____
Midwest	_____
West	_____
South	_____

Estimate the Annual Tuition of Your School?

\$0 - \$15,000	_____
\$15,001 - \$20,000	_____
\$20,001 - \$30,000	_____
\$30,001 - \$40,000	_____
\$40,001 - \$50,000	_____
\$50,001+	_____

Are You A Parent of School-Age Children?

What Best Describes the School Your Children Attend? - Selected Choice

What Best Describes the School Your Children Attend? - Other (Please Specify)

--

What is Your Relationship Status? - Selected Choice

What is Your Relationship Status? – Other

--

SCHOOL DEMOGRAPHICS

Please estimate what percentage of the students at your school are (must total 100):

Black/African American	_____
Black/Caribbean	_____
Black/African	_____
Multiracial	_____
Asian American/Pacific Islander	_____
Latino/Hispanic	_____
White	_____
Native American	_____

Please estimate what percentage of the Administrators at your school are (must total 100) -

Black/African American	_____
Black/Caribbean	_____
Black/African	_____
Multiracial	_____
Asian American/Pacific Islander	_____
Latino/Hispanic	_____
White	_____
Native American	_____

Please estimate what percentage of the Teachers at your school are (must total 100) -

Black/African American	_____
Black/Caribbean	_____
Black/African	_____
Multiracial	_____
Asian American/Pacific Islander	_____
Latino/Hispanic	_____
White	_____
Native American	_____

Please estimate what percentage of the Support Staff at your school are (must total 100) -

Black/African American	_____
Black/Caribbean	_____
Black/African	_____
Multiracial	_____
Asian American/Pacific Islander	_____

Latino/Hispanic	_____
White	_____
Native American	_____

Please estimate what percentage of the Maintenance/Dining staff at your school are (must total 100) -

Black/African American	_____
Black/Caribbean	_____
Black/African	_____
Multiracial	_____
Asian American/Pacific Islander	_____
Latino/Hispanic	_____
White	_____
Native American	_____

Please estimate the percentage of your neighbors where you live (must total 100) -

Black/African American	_____
Black/Caribbean	_____
Black/African	_____
Multiracial	_____
Asian American/Pacific Islander	_____
Latino/Hispanic	_____
White	_____
Native American	_____

Psychological Sense of School Racial Climate (PSSRC)

Please rate the following questions in regards to your school/organizational climate:

- | | | | | | |
|--|---------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------|---------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Our school/organization deals with racial conflict in an open and fair manner | <i>Never</i> | <i>A Few Times</i> | <i>Sometimes</i> | <i>Often</i> | <i>Very Often</i> |
| 2. I believe addressing issues of race, class or privilege can be exhausting | <i>Never</i> | <i>A Few Times</i> | <i>Sometimes</i> | <i>Often</i> | <i>Very Often</i> |
| 3. The leadership fears that discussions of racial/ethnic issues will lead to conflict or disagreement | <i>Never</i> | <i>A Few Times</i> | <i>Sometimes</i> | <i>Often</i> | <i>Very Often</i> |
| 4. Racial/ethnic conflict or differences are perceived as insurmountable in my school | <i>Never</i> | <i>A Few Times</i> | <i>Sometimes</i> | <i>Often</i> | <i>Very Often</i> |
| 5. Subtle signs of bias by faculty towards students are addressed and acknowledged in my school/organization | <i>Never</i> | <i>A Few Times</i> | <i>Sometimes</i> | <i>Often</i> | <i>Very Often</i> |
| 6. There are opportunities for professional development and programming in diversity competence | <i>Never</i> | <i>A Few Times</i> | <i>Sometimes</i> | <i>Often</i> | <i>Very Often</i> |
| 7. I have witnessed overt racist acts in my school/organization | <i>Never</i> | <i>A Few Times</i> | <i>Sometimes</i> | <i>Often</i> | <i>Very Often</i> |
| 8. I have heard colleagues talk negatively about their experiences with racial discrimination | <i>Never</i> | <i>A Few Times</i> | <i>Sometimes</i> | <i>Often</i> | <i>Very Often</i> |
| 9. I have seen and heard stereotypes about my racial group at my school/organization | <i>Never</i> | <i>A Few Times</i> | <i>Sometimes</i> | <i>Often</i> | <i>Very Often</i> |
| 10. I have spoken up in disagreement when other racial groups were challenged at my school/organization | <i>Never</i> | <i>A Few Times</i> | <i>Sometimes</i> | <i>Often</i> | <i>Very Often</i> |

11. I have seen and heard stereotypes about other racial groups at my school/organization

Never A Few Times Sometimes Often Very Often

12. I have spoken up in disagreement when my racial group was being challenged at my school/organization

Never A Few Times Sometimes Often Very Often

Supportive Racial Efficacy School Interactions (SRESI)

Please rate the following questions in regards to your school/organizational climate:

1. I can have conversations about racial inequities in society with my colleagues
Never A Few Times Sometimes Often Very Often
2. Maintaining professional respect among colleagues means that you must ignore issues of racism
Never A Few Times Sometimes Often Very Often
3. It is easy to avoid conversations about race with my colleagues
Never A Few Times Sometimes Often Very Often
4. I have influence on the diversity decisions made in this organization
Never A Few Times Sometimes Often Very Often
5. I have had to swallow my anger about racial conflict in my school/organization
Never A Few Times Sometimes Often Very Often
6. Colleagues take me seriously when I raise issues of race, class and privilege
Never A Few Times Sometimes Often Very Often
7. I have seen colleagues swallow their anger when they see racist behaviors in my school/organization
Never A Few Times Sometimes Often Very Often
8. I often hold back what I want to say about racial matters in order to maintain professionalism
Never A Few Times Sometimes Often Very Often
9. I have spoken up directly about racial issues in my school
Never A Few Times Sometimes Often Very Often
10. I have witnessed others who are respected when they speak up about race
Never A Few Times Sometimes Often Very Often
11. I prefer not getting involved in racial conflicts or concerns in my school or organization
Never A Few Times Sometimes Often Very Often

12. Colleagues believe that discussions of race, class and privilege are exhausting or exaggerated

Never A Few Times Sometimes Often Very Often

13. Colleagues are encouraged when discussions of race are raised

Never A Few Times Sometimes Often Very Often

14. I am able to openly disagree with a supervisory decision about my teaching or work

Never A Few Times Sometimes Often Very Often

15. I have talked to my colleagues about racial discrimination at my school/ organization

Never A Few Times Sometimes Often Very Often

16. In the classes I teach at school, we have had discussions about race

Never A Few Times Sometimes Often Very Often

17. Most colleagues at my school include important racial knowledge in their teaching

Never A Few Times Sometimes Often Very Often

Teacher Racial Encounter Educational Preparation Scale (TREEP)

Please rate the following questions in regards to your educational preparation:

1. My education has prepared me well to resolve racial conflicts in my current school/organization

Never	A Few Times	Sometimes	Often	Very Often
--------------	--------------------	------------------	--------------	-------------------

2. My education focused a lot on addressing racial conflicts in the classroom

Never	A Few Times	Sometimes	Often	Very Often
--------------	--------------------	------------------	--------------	-------------------

3. My education focused a lot on addressing racial politics with parents at my school/organization

Never	A Few Times	Sometimes	Often	Very Often
--------------	--------------------	------------------	--------------	-------------------

4. My education has prepared me well to resolve racial conflicts with my colleagues at school/organization

Never	A Few Times	Sometimes	Often	Very Often
--------------	--------------------	------------------	--------------	-------------------

On a scale from 1-10 how stressed are you now?

Imagine: (1) is an anthill level of stress (not stressed) (5) is the stress of mountain climbing (somewhat stressed) (10) is the stress of facing a tsunami (very stressed)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----

School Racial Interactions Stress Scale (SRIS)

Please rate the following questions in regards to the stressfulness of the experience:

1. Being a person of color in my school/organization is...
Not Stressful A Little Stressful Somewhat Stressful Very Stressful
2. If my school's diversity mission goals were not accomplished each year...
Not Stressful A Little Stressful Somewhat Stressful Very Stressful
3. Hearing negative stereotypes about people of other races is...
Not Stressful A Little Stressful Somewhat Stressful Very Stressful
4. Hearing colleagues in my school suggest that diversity represents a reduction in the quality of our academic standards
Not Stressful A Little Stressful Somewhat Stressful Very Stressful
5. Swallowing my anger when I see racist behaviors in my school/organization is...
Not Stressful A Little Stressful Somewhat Stressful Very Stressful
6. Raising issues of class and privilege in my school/organization is...
Not Stressful A Little Stressful Somewhat Stressful Very Stressful
7. Ignoring issues of racism in order to maintain respect among colleagues is...
Not Stressful A Little Stressful Somewhat Stressful Very Stressful
8. Having conversations about racial inequities with your colleagues is...
Not Stressful A Little Stressful Somewhat Stressful Very Stressful
9. Raising concerns about racial conflicts with the parents of students of color in your school is...
Not Stressful A Little Stressful Somewhat Stressful Very Stressful
10. Raising concerns about racial conflict with parents of White students in your school is...
Not Stressful A Little Stressful Somewhat Stressful Very Stressful
11. Raising concerns about racial conflict in your school with your faculty
Not Stressful A Little Stressful Somewhat Stressful Very Stressful
12. Raising concerns about racial conflict in your school with your head of school is...

	Not Stressful	A Little Stressful	Somewhat Stressful	Very Stressful
13. Raising concerns about racial conflict in your school with your students is...	Not Stressful	A Little Stressful	Somewhat Stressful	Very Stressful
14. Observing conflicts issues or race, class or privilege is...	Not Stressful	A Little Stressful	Somewhat Stressful	Very Stressful
15. Observing subtle racial strife in your school is...	Not Stressful	A Little Stressful	Somewhat Stressful	Very Stressful
16. Witnessing overt racist acts in my school/organization is...	Not Stressful	A Little Stressful	Somewhat Stressful	Very Stressful
17. Participating in professional development in diversity competence at my school/organization is...	Not Stressful	A Little Stressful	Somewhat Stressful	Very Stressful
18. Hearing from others that discussion of racial/ethnic issues could lead to conflict or disagreement is...	Not Stressful	A Little Stressful	Somewhat Stressful	Very Stressful
19. Leadership attempting to address racial bias at our school/organization is...	Not Stressful	A Little Stressful	Somewhat Stressful	Very Stressful

School/Teacher Racial Encounter Stress Scale (STRES)

How I feel about classroom challenges as a teacher or school leader teaching:

1. I have the ability to overcome stress regarding about racial matters.

<i>Not At All</i>	<i>A Few Times</i>	<i>Sometimes</i>	<i>Many Times</i>	<i>A Lot</i>
--------------------------	---------------------------	-------------------------	--------------------------	---------------------
2. I perceive teaching about racial matters in class as threatening.

<i>Not At All</i>	<i>A Few Times</i>	<i>Sometimes</i>	<i>Many Times</i>	<i>A Lot</i>
--------------------------	---------------------------	-------------------------	--------------------------	---------------------
3. There is someone I can turn to for help when I experience conflicts with my students of color.

<i>Not At All</i>	<i>A Few Times</i>	<i>Sometimes</i>	<i>Many Times</i>	<i>A Lot</i>
--------------------------	---------------------------	-------------------------	--------------------------	---------------------
4. I would rather not have to deal with the stress of teaching about racial topics

<i>Not At All</i>	<i>A Few Times</i>	<i>Sometimes</i>	<i>Many Times</i>	<i>A Lot</i>
--------------------------	---------------------------	-------------------------	--------------------------	---------------------
5. I have what it takes to beat the stress of teaching about racial matters

<i>Not At All</i>	<i>A Few Times</i>	<i>Sometimes</i>	<i>Many Times</i>	<i>A Lot</i>
--------------------------	---------------------------	-------------------------	--------------------------	---------------------
6. I feel anxious when my students and I don't get along due to racial misunderstandings

<i>Not At All</i>	<i>A Few Times</i>	<i>Sometimes</i>	<i>Many Times</i>	<i>A Lot</i>
--------------------------	---------------------------	-------------------------	--------------------------	---------------------
7. Stressful events around race in my classroom impact me greatly.

<i>Not At All</i>	<i>A Few Times</i>	<i>Sometimes</i>	<i>Many Times</i>	<i>A Lot</i>
--------------------------	---------------------------	-------------------------	--------------------------	---------------------
8. There is help available to me when my students think I might be racially biased

<i>Not At All</i>	<i>A Few Times</i>	<i>Sometimes</i>	<i>Many Times</i>	<i>A Lot</i>
--------------------------	---------------------------	-------------------------	--------------------------	---------------------
9. Most racially stressful events in my classroom end positively

<i>Not At All</i>	<i>A Few Times</i>	<i>Sometimes</i>	<i>Many Times</i>	<i>A Lot</i>
--------------------------	---------------------------	-------------------------	--------------------------	---------------------
10. The racially stressful events in my classroom have serious implications for my life

<i>Not At All</i>	<i>A Few Times</i>	<i>Sometimes</i>	<i>Many Times</i>	<i>A Lot</i>
--------------------------	---------------------------	-------------------------	--------------------------	---------------------
11. I have the resources available to me to overcome racial stress when a student and I don't get along

<i>Not At All</i>	<i>A Few Times</i>	<i>Sometimes</i>	<i>Many Times</i>	<i>A Lot</i>
--------------------------	---------------------------	-------------------------	--------------------------	---------------------
12. I have the skills necessary to overcome racial stress in my classroom.

Not At All A Few Times Sometimes Many Times A Lot

13. Racial stress within my student relationships at school has a negative impact on me.

Not At All A Few Times Sometimes Many Times A Lot

14. There are long-term consequences as the result of racial stress from teaching.

Not At All A Few Times Sometimes Many Times A Lot

15. My students challenge my authority as a teacher because of my race

Not At All A Few Times Sometimes Many Times A Lot

16. I feel paralyzed by racially tense matters

Not At All A Few Times Sometimes Many Times A Lot

Racial Encounter Problem Solving (REPS)

In your role at school now, how well do you feel you can successfully do the following:

1. Discuss racial conflicts at school with White colleagues?

Not Well At All Rarely Occasionally Well Usually Well Very Well Each Time

2. Discuss racial conflicts at school with colleagues of color?

Not Well At All Rarely Occasionally Well Usually Well Very Well Each Time

3. Discuss racial conflicts at school with your principal/head/supervisor?

Not Well At All Rarely Occasionally Well Usually Well Very Well Each Time

4. Discuss racial conflicts about your principal/head/supervisor with your principal/head/supervisor?

Not Well At All Rarely Occasionally Well Usually Well Very Well Each Time

5. Resolve a racial conflict among your supervisees/staff that you lead?

Not Well At All Rarely Occasionally Well Usually Well Very Well Each Time

6. Resolve concerns about racial issues at the school with a parents of color group?

Not Well At All Rarely Occasionally Well Usually Well Very Well Each Time

7. Resolve concerns about racial issues at the school with a White student group?

Not Well At All Rarely Occasionally Well Usually Well Very Well Each Time

8. Resolve concerns about racial issues at the school with a students of color group?

Not Well At All Rarely Occasionally Well Usually Well Very Well Each Time

9. Resolve concerns about racial issues at the school with a White parents group?

Not Well At All Rarely Occasionally Well Usually Well Very Well Each Time

Childhood Racial Socialization Scale (CFRS)

Please rate the following questions in regard to frequency of conversations or interactions based on your experiences.

1. Growing up, my family said negative things about people in other racial groups.
Never A Few Times Sometimes Often Very Often

2. Growing up, my family talked to me about racial discrimination
Never A Few Times Sometimes Often Very Often

3. Growing up, my family talked to me about being proud of my race
Never A Few Times Sometimes Often Very Often

4. Growing up, my family said negative things about my own racial group
Never A Few Times Sometimes Often Very Often

5. Growing up, I heard negative things about my own racial group
Never A Few Times Sometimes Often Very Often

6. Growing up, I heard negative things about other racial groups
Never A Few Times Sometimes Often Very Often

7. Growing up, I was often in the company of people from other racial groups
Never A Few Times Sometimes Often Very Often

8. Growing up, my parents told me what to do if I was rejected because of my race
Never A Few Times Sometimes Often Very Often

9. Growing up, my family told me to ignore it when someone discriminated against me
Never A Few Times Sometimes Often Very Often

10. Growing up, I was mistreated because of my race or skin color by people of my own race
Never A Few Times Sometimes Often Very Often

11. Growing up, I was mistreated because of my race or skin color by people not of my race
Never A Few Times Sometimes Often Very Often

12. In my school growing up, there were racial conflicts among students

Never A Few Times Sometimes Often Very Often

13. In my school growing up, my teachers discussed racial matters in the classroom

14. Never A Few Times Sometimes Often Very Often

15. In my school growing up, I heard racial stereotypes about people of color

16. Never A Few Times Sometimes Often Very Often

17. In my school growing up, I spoke up about racial matters

18. Never A Few Times Sometimes Often Very Often

19. In my school growing up, I swallowed my anger about racial matters

20. Never A Few Times Sometimes Often Very Often

Teacher Ability to Motivate Students Scale (TAMS)

Please rate the following questions in regard to the frequency of your experiences as teacher or leader:

1. I can get all students in class to work hard with their schoolwork.
Not Certain At All “2” Quite Uncertain “4” Quite Certain “6” Absolutely Certain
2. I can wake the desire to learn even among the lowest achieving student
Not Certain At All “2” Quite Uncertain “4” Quite Certain “6” Absolutely Certain
3. I can get students to do their best even when working with difficult problems
Not Certain At All “2” Quite Uncertain “4” Quite Certain “6” Absolutely Certain
4. I can motivate students who show low interest in schoolwork
Not Certain At All “2” Quite Uncertain “4” Quite Certain “6” Absolutely Certain

Teacher Ability to Motivate Teachers Scale (TAMT)

Please rate the following questions in regard to the frequency of your experiences as teacher or leader:

1. I can get all teachers in class to work hard with their students of color
Not Certain At All “2” Quite Uncertain “4” Quite Certain “6” Absolutely Certain
2. I can wake the desire to teach even among the least talented teachers
Not Certain At All “2” Quite Uncertain “4” Quite Certain “6” Absolutely Certain
3. I can get teachers to do their best even when working with difficult students of color
Not Certain At All “2” Quite Uncertain “4” Quite Certain “6” Absolutely Certain
4. I can motivate teachers who show low interest in teaching students of color
Not Certain At All “2” Quite Uncertain “4” Quite Certain “6” Absolutely Certain

Teacher Classroom Management Scale (TCM)

Please rate the following questions in regard to the frequency of your experiences as teacher or leader:

1. I can keep defiant students involved in my lessons

Strongly Agree ***Agree*** ***Maybe Agree*** ***Maybe Disagree*** ***Disagree*** ***Strongly Disagree***

2. I am able to respond adequately to defiant students.

Strongly Agree ***Agree*** ***Maybe Agree*** ***Maybe Disagree*** ***Disagree*** ***Strongly Disagree***

3. I can keep a few problem students from ruining an entire class.

Strongly Agree ***Agree*** ***Maybe Agree*** ***Maybe Disagree*** ***Disagree*** ***Strongly Disagree***

4. I can manage my class very well.

Strongly Agree ***Agree*** ***Maybe Agree*** ***Maybe Disagree*** ***Disagree*** ***Strongly Disagree***

5. I can take adequate measures that are necessary to keep activities running efficiently.

Strongly Agree ***Agree*** ***Maybe Agree*** ***Maybe Disagree*** ***Disagree*** ***Strongly Disagree***

6. If a student disrupts the lesson, I am able to redirect him quickly.

Strongly Agree ***Agree*** ***Maybe Agree*** ***Maybe Disagree*** ***Disagree*** ***Strongly Disagree***

7. I can get through to most difficult students.

Strongly Agree ***Agree*** ***Maybe Agree*** ***Maybe Disagree*** ***Disagree*** ***Strongly Disagree***

8. There are very few students that I cannot handle.

Strongly Agree ***Agree*** ***Maybe Agree*** ***Maybe Disagree*** ***Disagree*** ***Strongly Disagree***

9. I am able to begin the scholastic year so that students will learn to behave well.

Strongly Agree ***Agree*** ***Maybe Agree*** ***Maybe Disagree*** ***Disagree*** ***Strongly Disagree***

10. I am always able to make my expectations clear to students.

Strongly Agree ***Agree*** ***Maybe Agree*** ***Maybe Disagree*** ***Disagree*** ***Strongly Disagree***

11. If students stop working, I can put them back on track.

Strongly Agree ***Agree*** ***Maybe Agree*** ***Maybe Disagree*** ***Disagree*** ***Strongly Disagree***

12. I can communicate to students that I am serious about getting appropriate behavior.

Strongly Agree ***Agree*** ***Maybe Agree*** ***Maybe Disagree*** ***Disagree*** ***Strongly Disagree***

13. I know what rules are appropriate for my students.

Strongly Agree ***Agree*** ***Maybe Agree*** ***Maybe Disagree*** ***Disagree*** ***Strongly Disagree***

14. I am not always able to execute several activities at once.

Strongly Agree ***Agree*** ***Maybe Agree*** ***Maybe Disagree*** ***Disagree*** ***Strongly Disagree***

Racial Microaggressions Against Students of Color Scale (RMASC)

Please rate the following questions in regard to your agreement with the items:

1. Other teachers in my school are afraid of many of the Black and Latino students

Strongly Agree ***Agree*** ***Maybe*** ***Disagree*** ***Strongly Disagree***

2. Colleagues/classmates discuss stereotypes of racial groups with each other

Strongly Agree ***Agree*** ***Maybe*** ***Disagree*** ***Strongly Disagree***

3. Most of my teacher colleagues know how to work effectively with Black and Latino students

Strongly Agree ***Agree*** ***Maybe*** ***Disagree*** ***Strongly Disagree***

4. There is a general belief in my school that Black and Latino students are not as smart as others

Strongly Agree ***Agree*** ***Maybe*** ***Disagree*** ***Strongly Disagree***

5. I think Black students at my school are disciplined harder than other students

Strongly Agree ***Agree*** ***Maybe*** ***Disagree*** ***Strongly Disagree***

6. My colleagues/classmates have expressed doubts about working with Black and Latino students

Strongly Agree ***Agree*** ***Maybe*** ***Disagree*** ***Strongly Disagree***

Individual Racial Encounter Appraisal & Decision-Making Scale (IREAD)

To what degree are the following statements true? "While growing up, my family's discussions about racial situations helped me:

1. ...cope well with discrimination based on my race

Not True Rarely True A Little True Somewhat True Mostly True Very True

2. ...feel positively about my racial group

Not True Rarely True A Little True Somewhat True Mostly True Very True

3. ...defend myself when I am racially humiliated

Not True Rarely True A Little True Somewhat True Mostly True Very True

4. ...stand up for others from my racial group when they are racially humiliated

Not True Rarely True A Little True Somewhat True Mostly True Very True

5. ...build a closer appreciation of my racial group

Not True Rarely True A Little True Somewhat True Mostly True Very True

6. ...look for signs of my racial history and accomplishments in my schooling and education

Not True Rarely True A Little True Somewhat True Mostly True Very True

7. ...see how my cultural background is central to how society has progressed

Not True Rarely True A Little True Somewhat True Mostly True Very True

8. ...speak up and support the celebration of my cultural history in public and private ventures

Not True Rarely True A Little True Somewhat True Mostly True Very True

9. ...criticize omission of racial ignorance in media and information outlets

Not True Rarely True A Little True Somewhat True Mostly True Very True

10. ...assess how stressed I am during racial conflicts

Not True Rarely True A Little True Somewhat True Mostly True Very True

11. ...change my view of a high stress situation so I can see it as less stressful

Not True Rarely True A Little True Somewhat True Mostly True Very True

12. ...consider alternative ways to resolve a racially stressful interaction with another person

Not True Rarely True A Little True Somewhat True Mostly True Very True

13. ...engage rather than walk away from a racially stressful conflict with another person

Not True Rarely True A Little True Somewhat True Mostly True Very True

14. ...avoid political correctness when asked to comment on a racially stressful conflict

Not True Rarely True A Little True Somewhat True Mostly True Very True

15. ...know what to say when I'm in a racially conflictual situation

Not True Rarely True A Little True Somewhat True Mostly True Very True

16. ...know how to calm myself so I can be fully present in a racially stressful conflict

Not True Rarely True A Little True Somewhat True Mostly True Very True

17. ...feel positively about other racial groups

Not True Rarely True A Little True Somewhat True Mostly True Very True

18. ...not hide from others how I feel about my racial background

Not True Rarely True A Little True Somewhat True Mostly True Very True

19. ...take better control of racial conflicts so they don't stress me out as much

Not True Rarely True A Little True Somewhat True Mostly True Very True

20. ...believe that racial conflicts can be powerful ways to build friendships

Not True Rarely True A Little True Somewhat True Mostly True Very True

21. ...seek out persons from my own racial group to be friends

Not True Rarely True A Little True Somewhat True Mostly True Very True

On a scale from 1-10 how stressed are you now?

Imagine: (1) is an anthill level of stress (not stressed) (5) is the stress of mountain climbing (somewhat stressed) (10) is the stress of facing a tsunami (very stressed)

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

APPENDIX B
Factor Analyses

Table 1

Factor Analysis Loading of the Teacher Perceptions of School Racial Interaction Dynamics

1-----2-----3-----4-----5	Avoidant Climate Assert Convs $\alpha=.86$ $\alpha=.84$ $\alpha=.67$				
Never - A Few Times – Sometimes – Often – Very Often					
Factor	1	2	3	M	SD
I have had to swallow my anger about racial conflict in my school	.75			2.42	1.13
I have seen and heard stereotypes about my racial group at my school	.70			2.45	1.12
The leadership fears that discussions of racial/ethnic issues will lead to conflict	.65			2.52	1.16
I have seen and heard stereotypes about other racial groups at my school	.65			2.73	1.02
I have witnessed overt racist acts in my school/organization	.64			2.24	1.09
Maintaining professional respect among colleagues means you must ignore issues of racism	.63			2.00	1.10
Racial/ethnic conflict or differences are perceived as insurmountable in my school	.61			2.03	0.90
I often hold back what I want to say about racial matters in order to maintain professionalism	.61			2.65	1.14
Colleagues believe discussions of race, class and privilege are exhausting or exaggerated	.60			2.87	1.12
I have seen colleagues swallow their anger when they see racist behaviors in my school	.57			2.62	1.62
I have heard colleagues talk negatively about their experiences with racial discrimination	.55			2.65	1.65
I believe addressing issues of race, class, or privilege can be exhausting	.46			2.72	1.72
I have spoken up in disagreement when other racial groups were challenged at my school	.45			2.64	1.64

Table 1 (continued...)

Factor Analysis Loading of the Teacher Perceptions of School Racial Interaction Dynamics

1-----2-----3-----4-----5	Avoidant Climate Assert Convs $\alpha=.86$ $\alpha=.84$ $\alpha=.67$				
Never - A Few Times – Sometimes – Often – Very Often					
Factor	1	2	3	M	SD
I have spoken up directly about racial issues in my school		.75		3.01	1.23
I have influence on the diversity decisions made in this organization		.71		2.57	1.36
I have talked to my colleagues about racial discrimination at my school		.70		2.90	1.21
I have witnessed others who are respected when they speak up about race		.62		3.22	1.17
Colleagues are encouraged when discussions of race are raised		.60		3.05	1.04
I am able to openly disagree with a supervisory decision about my teaching or work		.53		2.93	1.12
Subtle signs of bias by faculty towards students are addressed and acknowledged in my school		.49		2.43	1.06
Our school/organization deals with racial conflict in an open and fair manner		.43		2.96	0.93
Colleagues take me seriously when I raise issues of race, class and privilege		.42		3.50	1.02
I have spoken up in disagreement when my racial group was being challenged at my school		.42		2.38	1.18
There are opportunities for professional development and programming in diversity competence		.41		2.95	1.23
Most colleagues at my school include important racial knowledge in their teaching			.74	2.53	0.93
I can have conversations about racial inequities in society with my colleagues			.56	3.30	0.90
In the classes I teach or observe at school, we have had discussions about race			.54	2.95	1.29

Table 2

Factor Analysis Loading for School/Teacher Racial Encounter Stress Scale (STRES)

1-----2-----3-----4-----5	Competence	Trauma	Threat		
Not At All - A Few Times – Sometimes – Many Times – A Lot	$\alpha=.82$	$\alpha=.75$	$\alpha=.75$		
Factor	1	2	3	M	SD
I have the resources available to me to overcome racial stress when a student and I don't get along	.83			3.26	1.18
I have the skills necessary to overcome racial stress in my classroom or school	.75			3.53	1.10
There is someone I can turn to for help when I experience conflicts with my students of color	.69			3.48	1.18
There is help available to me when my students think I might be racially biased	.65			2.99	1.27
Most racially stressful events in my classroom or school end positively	.64			3.35	1.06
I have the ability to overcome stress regarding teaching or leading about racial matters	.59			3.62	1.07
I have what it takes to beat the stress of teaching or leading about racial matters	.58			3.78	1.14
Stressful events around race in my classroom or school impact me greatly		.80		2.91	1.19
The racially stressful events in my classroom or school have serious implications for my life		.74		2.69	1.13
Racial stress within my student relationships at school has a negative impact on me		.74		2.37	1.09
I feel anxious when my students and I don't get along due to racial misunderstandings		.58		2.60	1.26
There are long-term consequences as the result of racial stress from teaching or leading		.52		3.01	1.20

Table 2 (continued...)

Factor Analysis Loading for School/Teacher Racial Encounter Stress Scale (STRES)

1-----2-----3-----4-----5	Competence Trauma Threat				
Not At All - A Few Times – Sometimes – Many Times – A Lot	$\alpha=.82$	$\alpha=.75$	$\alpha=.75$		
Factor	1	2	3	M	SD
I perceive teaching or leading about racial matters in class as threatening			.82	1.61	0.89
I would rather not have to deal with the stress of teaching or leading about racial topics			.79	1.66	0.93
My students challenge my authority as a teacher or leader because of my race			.61	1.97	1.05
I feel paralyzed by racially tense matters			.59	1.85	1.03

Table 3

Factor Analysis Loading of Childhood Racial Socialization Scale (CHRS)

Stem: Growing up,...	Protective Negative			
1-----2-----3-----4-----5				
Never - A Few times – Sometimes – Often – Very Often	$\alpha=.82$	$\alpha=.75$		
Factor	1	2	MD	SD
I was mistreated because of my race or skin color by people not of my race	.81		1.93	1.04
My family talked to me about racial discrimination	.77		3.08	1.32
My parents told me what to do if I was rejected because of my race	.76		1.91	1.28
I was mistreated because of my race or skin color by people of my own race	.75		1.64	0.94
My family talked to me about being proud of my race	.70		2.70	1.59
I was often in the company of people from other racial groups	.59		3.15	1.23
My family said negative things about people in other racial groups		.79	2.32	1.04
My family said negative things about my own racial group		.74	1.92	0.99
I heard negative things about other racial groups		.72	3.09	1.04
Growing up, my family told me to ignore it when someone discriminated against me		.48	2.08	1.26

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